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ABSTRACT

The 23 conference papers in this proceedings include: (1) "Global Awareness Society International: Retrospectives and Prospectives" (Chang Shub Roh); (2) "Technology Transfer in Développing Countries: The Case of Turkey (1989-1994)" (Huseyin Ates; Asim Sen); (3) "Indigenous People, Environmental Protection and Globalization" (Edward D. Barker); (4) "Children['s] Literature: A Tool to Implement Multicultural Education" (Wei Wei Cai); (5) "Technology Transfer in Human Services: The Case of Basic Ecclesial Communities" (John G. Cosgrove); (6) "Adaptation of Traditional HR Rocesses for Total Quality Environments" (Robert D. Costigan); (7) "Some Language Concepts We Could (Should) Do Without" (Maverick M. Harris); (8) "Global Competition & TQM" (Selim S. Ilter); (9) "The Thorny Road of Confucian Religion Mission to the West" (Thomas Hosuck Kang); (10) "Developing Strategies for Accelerated Economic Growth and Global Awareness for Caribbean Countries" (Stanley J. Lawson; Jay Nathan); (11) "The Reinvention of U.S. Public Personnel Administration: International Implications and Impacts" (William M. Leavitt); (12) "Functions of Forms of Address in Intercultural Communication" (Anna Lubecka); (13) "Administrative Governmental Reform: An International Comparative Analysis" (Berhanu Mengistu; Keith R. Reynolds); (14) "Peacespeak: A Framework for Using Language for Peace" (Sylvia S. Mulling); (15) "Is National Health Insurance Needed" (Robert Obutelewicz); (16) "Students' Stereotypes of Non-Western Cultures and the Effects on Global Awareness" (Egerton Osunde; Neil Brown); (17) "Total Quality Management Training Implementation: A Cross-Cultural Perspective" (Wolfgang Pindur; Sandra E. Rogers; Sherry M. Burlingame); (18) "The Dynamic Impact of Union Density on Labor Productivity Across Economics" (Rod D. Raehsler); (19) "Macro Factors for Determining Total Quality" (Asim Sen); (20) "Perspectives in Global Education" (Madhav P. Sharma; Stephen A. Pavlak); (21) "Welfare Reform and America's Children" (Dale L. Sultzbaugh); and (22) "Accessible Mental Health Services for Pre-School Families in Rural America" (Judith A. M. Sultzbaugh. Some papers contain references. (EH)

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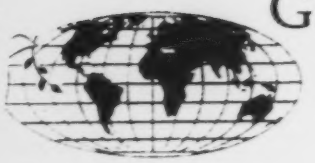

GLOBAL AWARENESS SOCIETY INTERNATIONAL

Journal of Global Awareness

PROCEEDINGS

1994 ANNUAL CONFERENCE

THEME

THE FIVE E'S: ETHNICITY, EDUCATION, ECONOMY, EQUITY, AND THE ENVIRONMENT

JUNE 1994
Chicago, Illinois
Executive Plaza Hotel

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Bloomsburg University
Bloomsburg, PA 17815

Proceedings of the 1994 Annual Conference

Journal of Global Awareness

Global Awareness Society International

Board of Editors:

James H. Huber	Daniel B Lee	Shah Mehrabi
Edward C. Pytlik	Mahmoud Salem	Wold Zemedkun

We are pleased to issue the Proceedings of the 1994 Annual Conference of the Global Awareness Society International. We want to thank the authors who presented these papers in June of 1994 in Chicago for preparing them for this format.

Special thanks go to Conference Chair, Daniel B. Lee, and his colleagues at Loyola University of Chicago for their hard work in making this conference a success.

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James C. Pomfret
October 1994
Bloomsburg, PA 17815

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GLOBAL AWARENESS SOCIETY INTERNATIONAL: RETROSPECTIVES AND PROSPECTIVES

Speech delivered at the Third Annual
Conference in Chicago, Illinois, June 5, 1994

By Chang Shub Roh, President

I. HISTORICAL BACKGROUNDS

A. Prior to May 1991

I am honored and humbled to extend my personal greetings and share our accomplishments with each of you since the founding of this professional society. This remarkable success thus far is largely due to your participation and commitment, especially the unselfish dedication of the officers in the organization.

Before we share our views on the future challenges and directions of our Society, let us reflect on the goals we have fulfilled and those that yet remain. A personal and professional evaluation allows us to examine areas in which we are pleased with our growth, as well as look at the areas we need to further develop in order to keep growing as a viable professional organization in the future.

Just like human birth, our Society had a "gestation" period even prior to the official birth of our Society on May 4, 1991. This gestation experience is of utmost importance in understanding the ideal and structural organization of the Global Awareness Society International.

It was in Mexico City in 1990 that organizational activities began. More specifically, as the founder of this organization, I believed that professional organizations, thus far in existence, were greatly segmentalized in scope and limited by geographical

boundaries, whether country, region, or internationally based. I believed we needed an organization encompassing disciplines on a global scale, as global orientation is increasing with rapidly developing modern science and technology. We need to address issues and, moreover, understand the new dynamics of an increasingly interdependent global village. Therefore, the concept of "GLOBE" came to my mind but I did not know exactly what the idea or direction should be. While wrestling with this idea with Daniel B. Lee (Loyola University of Chicago), he suggested that "AWARENESS" may be a part of my thinking. Thus, the name of our organization, Global Awareness Society International, emerged. At even those early stages, colleagues like Wold Zemedkun (Norfolk State University), Lewis Mannerick and Mehrangiz Najafizadeh (Kansas University), supported organizing a new society.

Based on the encouragement of these colleagues and others, I started to formulate goals and ideas of the Global Awareness Society International, namely mutual understanding among the people of the global village, and a humanistic orientation and the eventuality of global peace. The draft of the constitution was also prepared with the assistance of my daughter, Shi Kyung Roh, who was visiting the United States from Germany at that time. Needless to say, this original draft was reviewed and revised many times before actual submission for formal adoption in Washington, D.C. on May 4, 1991.

II. FORMAL ESTABLISHMENT OF THE SOCIETY IN WASHINGTON D.C. on MAY 1991

An official birth did not take place until May 4, 1991, in Washington D.C. Four members were present consisting of colleagues Shah Mehrabi (Montgomery College), James H. Huber, James C. Pomfret and myself (Bloomsburg University). Daniel B. Lee (Loyola University at Chicago) gave me the proxy. After reviewing the text paragraph by paragraph, we finally adopted the constitution. Following the adoption of the constitution, I became founder, and the other four colleagues became founding members.

A. Elections of Officers and Appointment of Board of Directors, Consultants and Program Officers

Based on the Constitution, elections were conducted and the following officers were nominated and elected:

1. Executive Officers - President: Chang Shub Roh; Vice President: Shah Mehrabi; Executive Director: James H. Huber; Treasurer: James C. Pomfret; Secretary: William Kwame Dadson.

2. Program Officers - Membership: Rexford Ahene; Nominations: Daniel B. Lee; Elections: Mehrangiz Najafizadeh; Program: Mehmoud Salem.

They assumed the chair of their areas.

In addition to the above officers, Board of Directors and Consultants were recommended and later appointed with their consent.

Without the commitment of the aforementioned officers during the initial three years of hard work, today's growth and success could not have been realized.

B. Approval of the Official Non-Profit Professional Organization by the State and Federal Governments

Governmental approval of a professional organization is the key to the official existence and proper functioning of any Society. Our organization has been extremely fortunate to have dedicated colleagues. These approvals were secured, astonishingly enough, without lawyers.

1. State Approval

On behalf of this society, James H. Huber applied to the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania Department of State Corporation Bureau for the Global Awareness Society International Incorporation

on May 10, 1991 and received the state's approval by Entrity Number: 2024493; Microfilm Number: 091290421-0422.

2. Federal Approval

Through James C. Pomfret's dedicated and time-consuming efforts, the Internal Revenue Service District Director granted the approval of Non-profit Professional Tax Exempt Status under section 501 (a) on February 14, 1992.

III. ACTIVITIES SINCE THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE SOCIETY

A. Networking with a basis of colleagues and friends

Since the formal establishment of the Global Awareness Society International, two magnificent developments have taken place. One was to invite colleagues and friends, who adhere to similar goals and ideals of the society throughout the global scale with whom I have been associated, to join the Society. In addition, other colleagues, Edward Pytlik (West Virginia University), Lee-Jay Cho (East West Population Institute), Thomas Meenaghan (Loyola University of Chicago) and others joined the Board of Directors. Paul T. Lauby, Salfo-Alben Balima, Thomas Kang and Stan McKeeman Jr. served as consultants. The first task of the Society was not only working with a broad base of colleagues and friends, but also planning for the first Global Awareness Society International conference in Crystal City, Virginia, in 1992. Well organized and committed executive officers and the colleagues and friends who assumed session chairs in all areas displayed impressive leadership roles in their conference sessions.

By April 12, 1992, total paid membership reached 79 and at the first annual conference on May 1-3, 1992, at the Marriot Hotel in Crystal City, Virginia, a total of 127 individuals participated. Among those attending were colleagues and friends of ten, twenty, thirty and even forty years who believed not only in the ideal goals of the

Society but also trusted us personally. For example, Stan McKeeman who serves as a consultant was a long time friend whom I met in the Korean War, as far back as 1952.

B. The Significant Support and Contributions of Bloomsburg University

Prior to the formal participation of Bloomsburg University, an institutional member, I communicated with Dr. James H. McCormick, Chancellor of the Pennsylvania State System of Higher Education, who encouraged this global organization. Indeed, Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania, as one of the 14 state universities in Pennsylvania, encourages the academic and professional excellence of it's faculty and also sets the goal of focusing on multiculturism and multicultural education as a mission of the State System of Higher Education in Pennsylvania.

Within this framework, the Bloomsburg University administration continuously supported this newly emerging Global Awareness Society International. The Administration, President, Vice President of Academic Affairs, and Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences, as well as other University constituents such as the Bloomsburg University Foundation and the Alumni Association showed their support. Bloomsburg University became the first Institutional Member in 1991.

On the university faculty level, Bloomsburg University faculty members' participation was enthusiastic even in the early stages of development. Woo Bong Lee, Sue Jackson, Dale Sultzbargh, Salim Qureshi, and Charles Hoppel became charter members as early as 1991, and many other colleagues, Anne K. Wilson, Robert Obutelewicz and Neal Slone, joined later. The regular memberships are still growing.

C. Current Status since 1993

Our membership started to grow and expanded throughout the United States and other countries on a global scale. By the second annual conference, the membership doubled to 164, and 129 members participated in the second annual conference on July 2-4, 1993 at the Marriot Marquis Hotel in New York City. In 1992, two Global International Awareness Society International chapters were officially established, one in Korea with a membership of approximately 130 and one in Japan. This year, 1994, we are prepared to establish a global village in China with headquarters at East China Normal University in Shanghai.

As we are concluding the Third Annual Conference in Chicago, a beautiful and urban city, we can report that our conference program participants increased to 146 members and our membership is still growing. This growth is evidenced by the impressive increase in hotel room reservations during the entire conference period from a total of 74 in Crystal City, the first conference site, to 187 in New York, the second site and now to almost 270 in Chicago at the end of the third annual conference.

In terms of committees, although some committees are not as active as we would like, we have 80 standing committee areas representing New York to Hawaii, Florida to Alaska within the United States. Also we have global village representatives who travelled from Poland, Hungary, Germany, Turkey, Korea and Canada to attend the conference.

Global Awareness Society International believes in diversity of global villagers and encourages their participation. Because of this philosophy we have been providing scholarships to students and limited conference support to scholars and professionals from countries where the monetary situations are not conducive to attendance. At the Third International Conference in Chicago, 1994, we are pleased to report that over 30 students participated with

support from the Bloomsburg University Foundation and the Alumni Association as well as our Society. We hope that this practice will continue and spread to all colleges and universities, and in the future to every corner of the global village.

In terms of our publications, within a relatively short period of time we have made significant inroads. We have published the Society's brochures and Newsletter, Abstracts, Conference Proceedings and the Global Awareness Society Journal. This year with the help of James H. Huber and other professional editors who blindly review submissions, articles of high quality will be published in the second annual Journal of the Society. It is our desire that all members encourage their colleagues and university librarians to subscribe to this unique and globally- oriented professional Journal.

IV. FUTURE CHALLENGES AND DIRECTIONS OF THE GLOBAL AWARENESS SOCIETY INTERNATIONAL

Although we are still a growing, future-oriented professional organization, we have been able to lay a solid and very successful foundation toward the ideal goal of our Society, pursuing humanism, peace and more livable global villages by understanding the dynamics of rapid globalization taking place now and in the future. This remarkable success, as previously indicated, is largely due to members participation, commitment, and dedication. As with any pioneers, the road has not been as smooth as one might assume. Countless and invaluable self sacrifice on the part of the leadership in the Society can be enumerated: energy, efforts, intelligence, time, and even personal finances have been sacrificed for the cause. However, as a reputable and future-oriented organization, one should not assume that this practice will continue endlessly.

Thus, we are challenged to respond to the following:

A. Increase and expand membership

It is vital for any organization to have not only sufficient members, but also to continuously expand both individually and institutionally. Individually, each of us as colleagues and friends who believe in the goals of our Society, can at least reach one additional member for the next year and each year thereafter. Institutionally, we can approach our colleagues, universities and places of business to encourage them to join with Bloomsburg University and School of Social Work at Loyola University of Chicago as institutional members. I believe that all of us have tremendous ingenuity and resources to convey our Society's ultimate goals to institutions and business organizations and encourage them to become institutional members.

B. Establish and expand in each country and regional global villages throughout the world.

In addition to already established global chapter villages, our Society should pursue these efforts aggressively. Currently, we have identified regional coordinators which cover the entire globe and we have identified selected country representatives who will assume the active leadership roles in forming their own country's chapter. The Society's International Headquarters has the guidelines for establishing new global chapters. Now and in the near future it is vital for our organization to place more emphasis on these efforts. Your further identification of leaders will be welcome.

C. Initiate the Global Youth Exchange programs

Our Society's vital interest rests on the mutual global understanding of the next generation and generations to come. In order to facilitate this objective, Global Awareness' country chapter youths should have the opportunity to become globally aware through in youth exchange programs. For example, young people would come to the United States at a given time learning global

education and conducting field studies of communities in the United States. In turn, U.S. students will visit other global villages.

D. Facilitate exchange programs of scholars, researchers, political leaders, business persons, and other interested professionals as well as global citizens

In order to enhance the spheres of teaching, research, conducting business and participating as global professionals and individuals on a global scale, the Society should strive to facilitate and organize opportunities for exchange programs. For example, the Society will provide special topics in a global education seminar, in addition to implementing global scholarly exchanges with different institutions.

E. Striving toward organizational independence and financial foundation

We need to grow and expand, fulfilling our stated mission goals as a viable professional organization in all respects - in operations, facilities, and personnel. We also need to have a solid research program and facilitate independent research in areas of global interests. Thus, Global Awareness Society's independence is directly related to financial security, continued support, and resources. In this endeavor, the Society needs to play an active role by increasing not only memberships within, but also securing outside resources from foundations, grant organizations, and business circles.

F. Emphasize global research and educational endeavors

As our organizational chart indicates, the Institute for Global Awareness Research and Education is the "Mothership", or basis, of our Society and there are many satellites - one including our annual conference. Thus, the primary contribution of the Global Awareness Society International is the initiation and continued research and education on the effect and impact of globalization on the global

villages and peoples. To this end, quality research and publications on the subject should vigorously be pursued, research foundation resources need to be secured, and our findings, knowledge and expertise need to be disseminated through periodicals, seminars, special lectures, and mass media. Encouraging and establishing scholarships to support students and professionals from global villages where the monetary situations are not conducive to attend the conference should also be initiated and developed.

V. CONCLUSION

In this speech, I briefly reviewed the historical development, current status, and the future challenges and directions of this Society. None of the past successes could have been accomplished without your active participation, commitment, and dedication. The Society is indeed fortunate to have leaders and constituents who proudly share their ideals, intelligence, time, energy and finances.

The future direction is more challenging. We cannot reach our goal without continued dedication, patience, and mutual understanding. Twenty five hundred years ago a sage, Confucius, visualized that world peace could be attained by sharing common communication (同手心), language (同文), and ethics (同倫) throughout the heaven and the earth. The Global Awareness Society is making strides to promote that vision. Thank you, and best wishes to each of you until we see each other in Shanghai, China, next May.

TECHNOLOGY TRANSFER IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES:

THE CASE OF TURKEY (1989-1994)

by

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and

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ABSTRACT

In this study, Turkey's technological development is analyzed within the frame of TLC hypothesis. We tried to determine the nature of the transferred technologies, the form of transfer process, and its restrictions. It is concluded that Turkey has transferred technologies in the various forms of license agreements. Turkey's experience might be useful for developing countries who are transferring technologies for their technological development.

Technology
Development
Productivity
Quality
Management

TECHNOLOGY TRANSFER IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES: THE CASE OF TURKEY (1989-1994)

Introduction

Technology is one of the major factors of determining a nation's economic development through increasing quality of products and services. Almost all nations try to increase their economic well-being through developing technologies. However, developed countries mostly using a strategy of originating new technology by proceeding through all the stages of the technological life cycle (TLC) and developing countries transfer technology from developed countries.

In this study we focus on developing technologies through transfer of standardized technologies. Specifically, we analyzed Turkey's experience and tried to develop some indicative lessons for other developing nations that may find it useful for their technological development.

The Frame of Analysis

Technology is defined as knowledge, methods and equipment which are applied to produce quality goods and services for a society's or nation's needs. Technological development is the advance of technology; such advance often takes the form of new methods of producing existing products, new designs which enable the production of products with new characteristics, and new techniques of management.

The modern technologies can be divided into three categories including intermediate, advanced (heavy) and frontier (new) technologies. Intermediate technologies are those which are scientifically simple and relatively more labor intensive and less capital intensive like textiles, food processing, light machinery and consumer goods. Advanced technologies are scientifically more sophisticated, and relatively less labor intensive and more capital intensive like iron and steel, heavy chemicals, heavy machinery and heavy electronic equipment. Finally, the frontier (new) technologies are standardized and improved significantly, and general information is not universally available on this category, like those associated with aerospace and computer industries.

The development of these technologies is a continuous and accumulative historical process which can be explained by the TLC hypothesis which has been tested empirically for many technologies.[1]

According to TLC hypothesis, because of the economical and technical reasons, it is quicker, cheaper and easier for developing countries to transfer standardized technologies. When technology is standardized, the relative importance of scientific and engineering requirements becomes less important and the cost of unskilled labor begins to be more important. Thus, those countries that manage to acquire standardized technology and have both a relatively low income and low wage labor cost can provide a comparative advantage which enables them to capture a large portion of the existent market.

Once a new technology is standardized, the speed at which followers adopt and diffuse it differs widely. Empirical evidence indicates that some followers have been struggling to adopt many technologies and become originators in a relatively short time. The speed of adoption, diffusion and the absorption of standardized technologies and the change from follower status to originator status depends on several factors: the size of the national economy, the availability of

natural resources, and most of all the quality of human resources.

It is expected that nations with large economies introduce a standardized technology quicker than nations with small economies. The countries with large economies would normally have greater financial resources, bigger research and development departments, larger experimental facilities, and most of all larger markets to absorb the products of standardized technologies.

Abundant natural resources, such as raw materials, food and labor forces, provide the capital required for imported technologies which in turn increase the rate of diffusion and the number of technologies which are adopted. Natural resources help to increase a nation's economic growth and growing economies would increase the adoption rate of standardized technologies. Thus, a nation with plentiful natural resources will adopt standardized technologies in a relatively short time since it has economic surplus and demand.

Although the size of both the economy and the natural resources is important, high quality human resources are the vital factors influencing the speed of followers' technological development. A high quality and large quantity of human resources are essential for technological development. A large number of today's researchers subscribe to a theory of which Theodore W. Schultz is a leading exponent, that human resources are a form of capital, a produced means of production, in which the resultant product is investment.[2] Lately, Frederick H. Harbison summed up the importance of human resources by stating that human resources, not capital, nor income, nor material resources, constitute the ultimate basis for the technological development.[3]

The human resources required for technological development include entrepreneurs, managers, scientists, engineers, technicians, workers and the population in general. A high level of education in each of these groups and their motivation (will power) and continuation to adopt new technologies and accept their products are positively related to followers' technological development.

The quality of human resources needs continuous education and training as a supply factor for modern technologies. General education increases the performance of all human resources from the general population to the top managers by encouraging qualities for the development of knowledge, skills, know-how and know-why.

Quality of human resources can also generate market demand for products and services of modern technologies. A developing nation with a large-sized population, and large export sectors, usually has the necessary market for technological development. However, the market can be expanded through increasing the population, integrating the population and the less-developed parts into the whole economy, and increasing exports through increasing quality and international competitiveness, all of which require a high level of technological as well as managerial skills.

Turkey has succeeded in developing some of the advanced technologies through utilizing its high quality human resources. By educating, training, organizing, and utilizing its human resources, Turkey generated the other necessary factors for technological development.

Research Methodology

This study covers the technology transfer agreements signed between 1989-1993 period in Turkey. The first study on the same issue was completed in 1989 covering a period of eight

years (1981-1988).[4] During the first period, 332 licensing agreements were signed, and 263 of them, representing 80 percent, were examined. The second study covers the period from the beginning of 1989 till end of the first quarter of 1994. During this period, 293 licensing agreements have been approved by the Undersecretariat of Treasury and Foreign Trade (Treasury), 176 of them representing 60 percent have been examined. It has been decided by the researchers that, 60 percent representation of the population would be adequate to make sound generalizations. As it has been explained below, the combination of quota and random sampling techniques have been used to select the files to be examined for this study.

The following table shows the number of licensing agreements signed in each year during the given period. First the distribution of cases was calculated,and then a quota was assigned to each year.

Table 1. Licensing Agreements and Distribution

Years	Number of Agreements Approved	Distribution %	Assigned Quotas (# of Agreements)
1989	74	26.0	47
1990	70	24.0	42
1991	56	19.0	33
1992	48	16.0	28
1993/94*	45	15.0	26
Total	293	100.0	176

* First quarter of 1994

After setting the quota limits, the files have been selected randomly to guarantee equal representation of the cases.

The data were gathered from the original licensing/know-how agreement files available at the General Directorate of Foreign Investment of Treasury. The names of the firms were not identified either in written reports or oral presentations. In order to tabulate the findings, a check-list type of form has been developed. The second round of the study is mainly done for the purposes of updating the original study. However, some additional data, such as the format of the licensing agreements, lump-sum payments, if any, form(s) of royalty/licensing fee payments were gathered.

The obtained data were tabulated first, and, then the frequency and distribution of the cases have been calculated. Some of the items were cross-tabulated with each other, and valuable results were obtained.

Research Findings

Nearly two-thirds (62.5%) of firms in the sample was independent domestic firms, and 16.5 percent was affiliated to the suppliers either in the form joint venture, or subsidiary company of the licenses. The distribution of agreements shows almost all manufacturing sub-sectors were represented in the sample. Twenty-five percent of licensees is operating in service sector, namely, hotel-motel management, banking, insurance, and consulting services.

Germany has the largest share (19.3 percent) among 18 countries which provide technology to Turkish firms. This can be considered as a normal development, since Germany is the leading foreign trade partner of Turkey. Germany is followed by USA, France, Italy and the United Kingdom, having the shares of 14.2, 13.0, 12.0, and 11.4 percent, respectively. With an exception of one, the United States, the leading countries are the members of the European Community (EC). At the beginning of 1995, Turkey will become a member of the European Custom Union, and eliminate all custom duties for the EC based products. For this reason, the European technology is becoming increasingly important since the Turkish companies will be competing with Community's firms in their domestic as well as in export markets. In addition, Turkey, as a developing country, needs to manufacture/produce high quality goods and services in order to increase her export earnings. That is mainly why the Government encourages local firms to transfer advanced technology from the developed countries.

Turkey, like other developing countries, is spending less than 1 percent of her GNP on research and development activities. The average spending on research and development activities is 0.25% in Turkey within the period of 1989-1993. In the last three years, additional incentives have been provided for research and development activities in the investment packages. In the annual programs of the Sixth Five-Year Development Plan covering the period of 1990-1994, it has been indicated that one percent of GNP will be spent on research and development activities.[5] This objective has not been achieved within the first four years of the sixth plan period. It seems to be that the same ratio of 0.25 percent of GNP will be spent on research and development activities in the last year of the plan period. In other words, Turkey will and needs to transfer foreign technology in order to increase the competitiveness of Turkish firms in international markets.

As was indicated before, the main objective of the study is to examine restrictive clauses in the licensing agreements. Some of the use-restriction conditions were cross-tabulated to see the relationships with other variables such as ownership, requirement to use licensor's marketing channels for export, purchase requirements, etc.

The following restrictions and/or requirements were identified in the know-how agreements signed between Turkish and foreign firms:

1. Restrictions on the export of products, processes and services manufactured by using the know-how obtained from foreign sources,

2. Restrictions to use original brand name in licensee's domestic market and export markets,

3. Purchase requirements of machinery, equipment, raw and auxiliary materials, and other inputs from the licensor, or from a specific supplier designated by the licensor,

4. Restriction to transfer the licensed know-how to the third parties,

5. Restriction to use the licensed know-how to manufacture/produce similar products after the licensing agreement is expired,

6. Requirements to use the licensor's existing marketing channel(s) in export markets,

7. Technology flowback requirements,

8. Quality control requirements for products or processes which embody the know-how obtained from the foreign sources,

9. Requirements to use improved technology (developed and provided by the licensor) to manufacture goods and/or services specified in the original licensing agreement,

10. Restrictions on the sub-licensing of technology which embodies the know-how transferred from the licensor.

Restrictions on the Uses of Transferred Technologies

Use-restrictions refer to limitations imposed by the technology supplier (licensor) on the commercial utilization of the transferred technology by the licensee and thus the restricting the operations of the latter.[6] The summary of the restrictions is given on Table 2.

A blanket restriction of exports to all third countries represents one-third (34.5%) of the licensing agreements. This is mainly due to fear to lose market share in international markets as a result of their own technology. Simply, the licensors do not want to clash with strong rivals having better competitive advantages, i.e., creating their competitors by providing advanced technologies. Thirty-three companies representing 19 percent did not put any restriction on exports, while 21.5 percent allowed exports on conditional basis. Some of the conditional clauses are:

i. written approval of the licensor prior to export,
ii. requirement to use the existing marketing channels of the supplier,
iii. joint exporting.

Table 2. Proportions of Use-restrictions Encountered in Licensing Agreements

Type of Restriction	1980-1988 No. of Agreements	Percent	1989-1994* No. of Agreements	Percent
• Prohibit Exports to All Third Countries	18**	7.5	61	34.5
• Territorial Restrictions	54**	22.4	38	21.5
• Purchasing Requirements (machinery & equipment)	38	14.4	39	22.5
• Purchasing Requirements (raw materials & inputs)	55	20.9	31	17.5
• Prohibit Sub-licensing Transferred Technology	222	84.4	110	62.5
• Prohibit Using Technology After End of Contract	123	46.8	79	45.0
• Prohibit Using Original • Brand Name	174	95.0	31	17.5
• Prohibit Using Third Party's Marketing Channels	n.a.	n.a.	54	30.5
• Prohibit Manufacturing Similar Products	44	24.0	136	77.5

*The first quarter of 1994.
**Figures are adjusted excluding service sector.
Source: (for the first column) Kirim & Ates as cited Ref. 4.

Any restrictive clauses to export to the former Eastern Bloc Countries and the countries supporting terrorism did appear in the Second Period.

During the First Period, 95 percent of the agreements contain a clause which prohibits the use of licensor's brand name and trademark outside the territory. However, during the Second Period, this clause was valid only for 17.5 percent of the agreements. This drastic reduction may be due to developments in globalization, and Turkey's decision to join the Custom Union of EC at the beginning of 1995. In both cases, the suppliers of the advanced technology may get great benefits, having their brand names and/or trademarks in export markets, before they physically enter into those markets.

If two restriction types combined, namely "export" and "uses of brand name" in domestic and export markets, export restriction reaches to an "effective" number of 92 representing 52 percent of the total cases.

Purchasing requirements of machinery and equipments, raw materials, and other inputs are valid for both periods, and available in more than one-third of the agreements.

While purchasing requirements can create unfavorable conditions for the operations of the technology recipients, the suppliers can have a sort of minimum quality guarantee for their products. This particular restriction has attracted a great deal of attention in the past, due to its monopolistic consequences in the supplier's market. It is not obvious, however, that purchasing requirements concerning machinery and equipment will necessary have a negative impact on licensees' operations. While this will be true in cases where hardware is available from multi-sources and the recipients have information about available sources, in most cases, the domestic company requires explicit assistance regarding the suppliers of machinery and equipment. In such cases, purchasing requirement clause may not be considered as a restrictive condition.

The required services, such as training of key personnel to be employed in manufacturing process should be provided by the supplier. In 74 agreements, representing nearly a half of the cases, all required services will be provided by the licensors. However, there may be some misleading cases in this category, because the Foreign Investment Department (FID) of Treasury has set a standard (fixed) licensing fee for each sub-sector before 1993. The licensing agreements requiring higher royalty fees than the "standard" ones have been approved tentatively, and asked to reduce the rate to a minimum level for final approval. As a result of this practice, while the suppliers are reducing the fees to be paid by the recipients, they increase either the length of the required services or start charging higher prices for professional fees where, understandably, there is no standard. As of January 1, 1993, the FID has stopped the practice of standard fee application. Since then, FID has approved the agreements as negotiated and signed by both parties.

Regarding the purchasing requirements for raw materials and inputs, 21% and 17.5% of the agreements had clauses to purchase some of the necessary inputs from the technology suppliers, in the first and second periods, respectively. In practice, such requirements may have more serious monopolistic consequences for technology transfer agreements.

Use-restriction by Sub-sectors and Equity Ownership

When the restrictions based on the sub-sectors are examined, two-thirds of the technology suppliers do not allow the licensees to export to the third countries, while one-third grants permission on conditional basis. The chemical product manufacturers have the highest share in

this category. The main reason for restricting the export may be due to the nature of the products manufactured by using foreign license. As long as they provide chemical formulas, presumably, the output would be the same. That is why they do not want to create their own competitors in export markets.

The chemicals are followed by the automotive, auto-parts, and agroindustry sub-sectors having 10, 6 and 6 cases, respectively.

Regarding the purchase requirements, most of the suppliers did not require the recipients to purchase machinery, equipment, raw materials, and other inputs. The number of cases was insignificant for all sub-sectors with exception of service and hotel management, where nine cases for each sub-sector, out of 43, include such clauses.

Training of key personnel for hotel management contract was required almost in all agreements by both parties. In service sector, such as selling computer programs, insurance services, engineering drawings, preparing feasibility studies for government tenders, etc., training, and consulting services generally required by the licensees.

Sub-licensing was prohibited in 66 percent of all agreements. Furthermore, in 75 percent of the cases, the licensee was not allowed to use the transferred technology for some stated period (usually five to ten years) following the termination of the contract. Even though such restrictions will obviously have undesirable consequences in terms of the diffusion of the technologies to the importing economy, it is nevertheless questionable as how binding such clauses can be.[7] Parry, in his quoted study, makes the distinction between restrictive clauses which are "norninal," that is, a formal restriction which has no relevance to an individual firm, and hence not operational, and those which are "binding." In this research study, the authors were unable to determine whether a restriction is binding or just nominal. On the other hand, it is especially difficult for the technology supplier to ensure that the technology will not be used by the licensee after the contract is expired.

Non-restrictive Clauses

There are several non-restrictive clauses in the licensing agreements such as technology flowback, quality control, and providing and using new technologies in manufacturing processes.

Technology flowback clauses requiring the licensee to share with the licensor any advances or improvement in the transferred technology, were available nearly in half of the agreements. In 70 agreements, representing 40 percent, newly developed technology should be transferred back to the supplier free of charge. In a small number of cases, the licensor agreed to pay a specified amount of fee (generally a half of the fee they are receiving from the licensee) to acquire the technology.

Considering the importance of building upon imported technologies in the successful industrialization of developing countries, the clause will have an adverse effect on the furthering of technological capabilities of the receiving firms.[8]

Providing new technology to the recipient during the agreement period was another non-restrictive clause in the agreements. Requirements to use the original brand name/trademark a restriction clause does not pose any serious consequences, since in 46 percent of the cases, it was compulsory to use original brand name. In 50 licensing agreements, representing more than one-third of the cases which included such clauses, did not have any restrictions at all. It was up

to the licensees whether to use the original brand name/trademark or not. Only 18 percent of the agreements, there was a restrictive clause banning the local manufacturers to use brand name in either domestic or export markets.

The highest frequency of restriction to use independent marketing channels was seen in chemical, and followed by automotive sub-sector. For instance, two out of five auto manufacturers in Turkey require licensees to use their (suppliers') existing marketing channels for export markets. Even spare parts sold in domestic market are (territory) tested by the licensor, then re-distributed in original packages in the territory.

Regarding the restriction to manufacture similar products and/or services during the duration of the agreement, 80 percent of the agreements had such clauses. As it was pointed out before, 75 percent of suppliers have restricted the use of the transferred technology for 5 to 10 years after the termination of the contract.

Half of the suppliers (49%) agreed to provide new technologies with a royalty fee, and nearly one-fourth free of charge. Providing new technology free of charge to the licensee may be considered as an investment for the future developments in current technology, as well as an instrument for the new future technologies to be shared by both parties.

Concerning the quality control requirements, 84 percent of the technology suppliers have indicated that the quality of products and/or services, produced by utilizing the transferred technology, is subject to control. The correlation between the requirement to use brand name and the quality control is very high ($r=.92$) indicating that if the licensor let a foreign firm use its brand name, it takes all precautions to maintain the quality of products. Simply, the supplier's brand image will be ruined if the products manufactured under the foreign license do not match the specified quality standards. In order to obtain high-quality products on the licensing deals, the quality standards in intermediary products and/or raw materials used by the licensees must be also set and assured.

CONCLUSION

New developments in international competition in manufacturing and agroindustry sectors require a rapid diffusion of new technologies into exporting firms. To the extent that this is done, the competitiveness of developing countries' firms will increase substantially. To be able to meet the export markets' growing demand for better quality products in most developing countries, manufacturing and agroindustry sub-sectors require more investment in new technologies. In developing countries; research institutions, including universities, should take initiative roles in selecting appropriate technologies and importing them into the country.[9]

Another key issue in technology transfer is to have skilled labor force to use the adopted technology in manufacturing sector in a short period of time. Unfortunately, most of the developing countries do not have enough skilled personnel to be employed in different sub-sectors, where high technology is employed. If the proper technology is selected, the required improvements have been made, and the manpower required to fill the job openings can be trained, the country's export revenues can safely be expected to increase.

According to findings of this study, the following conclusions can be drawn for technology transfer agreements signed between the developed countries (suppliers) and the developing countries (recipients): (i) blanket restrictions were imposed on exports, not to compete with its own brands; (ii) restrictions to export to former Eastern Bloc countries, and supporting terrorism

were not observed in the agreements signed after the unification of East and West Germany; (iii) the licensees are not allowed to enter those areas where the licensor had an ongoing operation; (iv) if the licensor allows to use its original brand name in foreign countries, frequency of cases requiring to purchase machinery-equipment, and raw materials increases; (v) there is a high correlation between the uses of original brand name and quality control requirements; (vi) the uses of technology after the termination of contract was prohibited from 5 to 10 years; (vii) technology flowback requirements also appeared in a relatively large number of contracts where, 40 percent of the technology developed will be transferred back to the licensors free of charge.

In sum, even though the number of restrictions seems to have been reduced as compared to the agreements signed before 1989, there are considerable evidences that restrictive conditions still continue to appear in the technology transfer agreements, limiting the operations of the recipient firms.

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INDIGENOUS PEOPLE, ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION AND GLOBALIZATION

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INDIGENOUS PEOPLE, ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION AND GLOBALIZATION

ABSTRACT

The process of globalization is examined by investigating the relationship between indigenous people and non-indigenous efforts to protect the environment. The conclusion drawn is that globalization is the process of establishing not just a global culture, but establishing Western society as that global culture.

Key Words: globalization, indigenous people, environmental protection, environmental ethics.

INTRODUCTION

Globalization is a concept of recent coinage (Robertson, 1990: 8). It can have (at least) two meanings: it can be

> a characterization of Western society following the creation of a general world-wide culture by the mass media which cuts across social classes and political boundaries. The mass media, particularly television and other electronic systems are all pervasive transmitters of urban culture since they stimulate the kinds of experiences and interactions that a city provides even though the person experiencing them may be in remote places (Goodall, 1987: 195-96).

It can also be the process of '... rendering the world... as a single place' (Robertson, 1987: 21). These two definitions of globalization represent polar opposites. One implies the removal of cultural differences and the creation of a global identity, the other suggests a globality without the loss of local identity.

This paper uses a conflict between indigenous people and environmentalists to shed some light on one pole of this bipolar characterization of globalization.

INDIGENOUS PEOPLE AND ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

A relationship between indigenous people and environmental protection exists because, after hundreds of years of colonialism and nationalism, many indigenous groups now occupy regions at the periphery of the developed world (Cochester, 1994). These regions are usually environmentally healthy, holding rare and endangered ecosystems and species; subsequently environmentalists have identified them as important areas to preserve for the future.

Environmentalists seek to protect these areas by petitioning governments to reserve land. Land reserves are the best way to preserve endangered species and ecosystems because access to and behavior toward them can be regulated. This is the rationale for the creation of National Forests, Natural Areas, Conservation Areas, National parks and Wilderness Areas in the United States. Indigenous people also petition governments to reserve land, but environmental protection is not their main reason for doing so. Indigenous people want land in order to protect and maintain their societies. If indigenous people are to maintain control of their affairs they need to be sovereign; for sovereignty to be meaningful they need land over which they can exercise sovereignty.

Environmentalists want to use the sovereignty of states to protect the environment. Having protected areas come within and be subject to state sovereignty allows the state to govern these areas that have historically been subject to the jurisdiction of indigenous people. Indigenous people however, wanting control of their own land, want to remain independent of the sovereign that surrounds and dominates them. Environmental protection becomes an issue to indigenous groups because the nations surrounding them have harmed the plants and animals, and the habitats they occupy, indigenous people need to survive. But because indigenous people live in harmony with the land they do not seek to protect the environment for the sake of the environment, rather they seek to control the land upon which they sustain themselves, relying on their understanding of the land to maintain its integrity (Suzuki and Knudtson, 1992: 15-20). In order to maintain their way of life indigenous people need land areas that have environmental integrity and the political independence to use these areas as they see fit. To achieve both these aims they need political control over land and recognition of that political control by others, i.e. sovereignty.

For many indigenous groups formal recognition of their sovereign status has yet to occur. Even when it does it is no guarantee of protection from policies of the dominant society. This is

even true of environmental policies. Let me illustrate what I mean by using the United States as an example.

Many indigenous groups in the United States have signed treaties with the federal government. Within these treaties territories have been delineated. American indigenous people have limited sovereignty over these 'reserved' lands (reservations) (Cherokee Nation v. Georgia, 30 U.S. 1; Worcester v. Georgia, 30 U.S.515). These treaties also preserved indigenous rights to fish, hunt and manage natural resources on reservations (New Mexico v. Mescalero Apache Tribe, 462 U.S.324). Over the last two centuries, as the United States was settled and developed, many of the fish and game species indigenous people depended on became scarce. The enveloping society passed laws limiting the taking of these scarce species in an effort to protect and improve their status. During the last thirty years, the United States Supreme Court has interpreted many of these laws as abrogating treaty hunting and fishing rights, citing Congress' intention that the conservation of endangered species be the rationale for the abrogation of these treaty rights (Puyallup Tribe v. Department of Game, 391 U.S.392; United States v. Dion, 106 S.Ct. 2216).This rationale is applied in the subsistence portion of the Alaska National Interest Lands Conservation Act (16 U.S. C.A. 3113-3126) which provides for the subsistence taking of fish and game on federal land by indigenous and non-indigenous rural residents. This statute allows rights to subsistence hunting and fishing to be suspended when the conservation of a species is deemed necessary.

Western environmental protection interferes with the rights of indigenous people when a species becomes threatened and conservation measures are enacted to preserve an organism or ecosystem. This interference occurs because indigenous people are rarely, if ever, consulted about the status of fish and game resources. Instead the scientific view of the dominant society holds sway and ignores indigenous knowledge. In Alaska, for example, the chum salmon run was considered too small to allow subsistence fishing of the species (Kelly, 1993). Alaska Natives protested the numerical determination by the state and claimed their own observations showed that there were enough chum for some subsistence use (Bostian, 1993). The level of frustration was high because of the possibility that their knowledge would even be ignored in the face of the possibility, as the Alaska Natives believed, that the state was using faulty equipment to count the salmon (Bostian, 1993). As this case demonstrates, environmental protection, using the scientific tradition of the dominant society, and for the laudable purpose of protecting endangered species and ecosystems, manages to erode indigenous peoples control of their own affairs. This occurs because indigenous people, in matters relating to environmental protection, have only a subnational status, and this subnational status makes them unable to participate particularly when it involves indigenous knowledge of the environment, as equals with non-indigenous society.

Conservation is not the only justification used to impose upon indigenous groups Western environmental protection. Some Western groups have made it their mission to make such protection absolute and strive to directly impose non-indigenous views of nature on indigenous groups. During the past twenty years, animal rights groups have had a negative impact on indigenous culture. Animal rights groups contend that animals have intrinsic value. This value is seen as giving animals the same status as human beings. Thus if killing humans is not allowed, neither should be the killing of animals (Regan, 1987). Intrinsic value is the direct extension of the view of nature held by Western peoples. In the West nature is viewed as an object, existing independently of human awareness. In the Oxford English Dictionary (1989: 248) this characterization of nature is given as '[t]he creative and regulative physical power which is conceived of as operating in the material world and as the immediate cause of all its phenomena.' This transcendent view of nature makes man a visitor in the natural world and results in the attitude that man cannot live in harmony with nature. If man cannot live in harmony with nature, then man must not harm it--in essence he can look but not touch--hence the creation of protected areas. These views of nature have led, for example, to a boycott of furs by animal rights advocates and those whom they have convinced to join their cause. This boycott has cost indigenous people much badly needed income because the fur industry was an important

commercial venture for many indigenous groups (Lynge, 1992). Even though the animal rights movement is an extreme form of environmentalism, less extreme environmentalists hold these same assumptions about nature. The view of nature held by the environmental movement, drives environmentalists, intentionally or unintentionally, to impose their view of the world upon indigenous people.

Environmentalist will insist the argument I have just presented misrepresents their intentions. However, sometimes unintended negative consequences result from even the best intentions. For example, at a forum on Northern Protected Areas and Wilderness held in Whitehorse, Yukon Territory, Canada, whose purpose was to 'search for ethical approaches to the care of ecosystems,' and 'foster an appreciation of how traditional [indigenous] knowledge and co-management can contribute to caring for our protected areas', a workshop was held on Science, Ethics and Judgment (Canadian Parks and Wilderness Society, 1993). It was an attempt to discover some possibilities for the application of environmental ethics to the problems of the environment. One of the speakers at the workshop was an indigenous person from the Gwich'in First Nation. The indigenous speaker got right to the point which was that non-indigenous researchers were conducting their research in indigenous areas without permission, specifically the never ending research on caribou herds. Caribou studies were particularly distressful to the indigenous people because they believed the research was affecting the herd. As it happened, one of the researchers was in the audience and defended the research pointing out that the caribou killed for the research were given to indigenous people. To that the indigenous representative replied that the caribou was fed to the dogs because the proper attitude toward the caribou had not been shown when they were killed making it unacceptable for Gwich'in to eat the caribou killed by the researchers. At this point the discussion focused on how to establish an environmental ethic that would prevent such situations. During this portion of the discussion the indigenous woman suddenly stated that she didn't know what ethics meant. She was openly distressed by the unwillingness of non-indigenous people to understand that another group of people might not share their ethical position. Indeed it was apparent that non-indigenous people were going to deny any sort of relativity and instead find some way to make indigenous views of the world commensurate with, or a subset of their own. In fact when someone pointed out that it might be more productive to start the discussion by first defining the ethical positions of indigenous and Western peoples, their suggestion was ignored and discussion continued on with determining how one should treat the environment.

The practical consequence of the attitude displayed by the environmentalists (and others) at the forum, is the domination, and diminution, of the indigenous world view. Indigenous people do not consider themselves conservationists (Crampton, 1992; Chelala, 1992). Indeed, they would rather use their knowledge of their surroundings to adapt to the world at large. However, indigenous knowledge is discounted by the West, and because their sovereignty is only conditional, they are only allowed to be represented in the Western environmental, i. e. political, process in an advisory capacity. Indigenous people become advisors because they are outnumbered by non-indigenous people and thus do not form majorities on panels, committees or commissions that form environmental policies. On the other hand, if indigenous people were considered sovereign they would have an equal say about matters important to them, equal even to the largest countries. Otherwise, the non-indigenous majority could sympathize with the troubles of indigenous people without the difficult task of doing something about indigenous problems. Thus non-indigenous people could assuage their consciences about taking the indigenous side while at the same time enacting environmental policies they know might have a negative effect on indigenous cultures. Without at least equal participation indigenous people cannot veto environmental policies that threaten their culture. Because environmentalists do not unconditionally support indigenous sovereignty, they end up dominating indigenous society through environmental protection.

GLOBALIZATION AND ITS IMPACT

Environmental protection is an export from Western society and affects indigenous societies because their political status is subsumed to that of the dominant culture. Therefore whenever the dominant culture detects environmental degradation it triggers protection measures that can, when the dominant society believes it is warranted, be imposed upon indigenous cultures. The fact that these measures may proportionately demand more from indigenous than non-indigenous people is not a matter considered by non-indigenous people. For example, no one would dare require Eurocentric societies to give up their spirituality to protect the environment; yet when environmental protection prevents indigenous people from maintaining their spiritual ties to the land the dominant society considers that a necessary casualty to the effort to protect the environment (Schwarz, 1987). Indeed, indigenous people are required to carry a proportionately greater burden for helping to restore environmental health than their own actions toward the environment would warrant.

If globalization means the establishment of one world culture, then the export of environmental protection to indigenous regions is another means by which Western society tries to assimilate indigenous people. In this case globalization means not just the establishment of one world culture, but *the establishment of Western society as that world culture.*

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Children Literature:
A Tool To Implement Multicultural Education

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Children Literature:

A Tool to Implement Multicultural Education

Abstract

More than eighty student textbooks and children's literature books were examined for their portrayal of Chinese culture. The findings of the research included: (1) stories are not authentic to Chinese culture; (2) Chinese women are underestimated; (3) Chinese people and their culture are distorted in the book illustrations; (4) misconceptions about Chinese culture and lack of correct information on modern China; (5) and stereotypes portrayed as the result of the authors' negative attitude.

Key words:

Multicultural education, children literature, Chinese culture, and textbooks.

Chinese Culture In Children's Books

American schools promote global education to develop the awareness of cultural diversity in the world, to enhance the understanding of different people, and to increase children's sensitivity to the issues in the world. To reach these goals, educators often use school textbooks and children's literature. 'Since the majority of elementary school teachers use textbooks as a principle teaching tool, textbooks become one of the major sources of knowledge for children (Anyon, 1978; Brandt, 1980). Approximately 50 million elementary and high school students are influenced by about 265 million textbooks (Black, 1967). Textbooks are viewed as the tools of formal education for children. Unlike trade books, textbooks restrict students' choices. Literature is another way for children to learn and can be used to foster cultural awareness and appreciation (Rasinski & Padak, 1990). Literature books not only play a role outside of the classroom, but also are used as learning resources in many schools. Through textbooks and children's literature, children are able to develop their cognitive ability and social potential, and can learn to deal with the complexities of modern society. To ensure that students are given accurate information, examining textbooks and children's literature books has become one of the most critical tasks in the current educational system. Good textbooks and literature books with accurate information of other cultures will foster students' positive attitude towards the whole world. Biased ones may lead to a reinforcement of stereotypes and misconceptions about other cultures in young readers.

I have examined 13 textbooks including basal readers and social studies textbooks which have chapters and information on China, and 26 children literature books with stories about China. Unfortunately, the results of the book analysis do not draw an optimistic picture. The biases, misinterpretations, and misconceptions of Chinese culture and its people are still dominant in these books.

Some stories are not those told in the Chinese culture. Some stories in the basal readers and children's literature books I examined do not reflect the characters of Chinese culture in general. These stories fall into three categories: imagined, adapted, and universal. Sometimes authors, based on the knowledge of China they had, imagined things that could happen in the Chinese culture from their white-male-middle class viewpoint. Other times, they adapted western stories and used Chinese names and illustrations with oriental faces. Some stories are universal stories that are told everywhere. These three types of stories do not help students understand other cultures. To the contrary, such books deliver misconceptions of cultural differences to the students. The messages children have possibly gotten from such reading materials are: (1) the Chinese are a people still living in some ancient era; (2) the only difference between western culture and Chinese culture is that Chinese people have different facial structures; (3) there is no difference in cultures. Those pseudo Chinese stories do not help the children understand with Chinese people.

When talking with some American children in an elementary school, they told me in

happy voices that they had read some Chinese stories, such as The Wooden Cat Man, which is in the basal reader, Passports, published by Houghton Mifflin Company, The Chinese Children Next Door written by Pearl S. Buck, and Five Chinese Brothers written by Claire Huchet Bishop and Kurt Wiese. These stories are unknown to Chinese people and do not exist in Chinese children's literature books. They portray Chinese characters in a negative role. To verify my opinions, I have asked more than 30 Chinese adults and children ranging in age from five to fifty about these stories, and checked the original Chinese children's literature books. The results indicate very clearly, these stories are not a part of the Chinese culture from the Chinese point of view. Chinese people say that learning another culture is to cross a bridge from one culture to another. The bridge that cannot connect two banks of the river is called a broken bridge, which causes either the person crossing the bridge to fall into the water or to turn back. Those unreal Chinese books are like the broken bridge, which do not help us to cross cultures.

Chinese people and their culture are distorted in the book illustrations. Book illustrations provide visual images to help children comprehend the contents of a story and make the reading more enjoyable. The book illustrations are even more influential when children read stories about other cultures. From book illustrations, readers can perceive directly through their senses. This is especially true for children who cannot yet read. Sometimes book illustrations can last even longer in the mind than the written context. Good book illustrations on unfamiliar cultures should have a high quality, since they are expected to provide accurate and positive visual impressions.

In most books, Chinese people are portrayed with pigtails, bending forward, stiff looking, and appearing stupid. These Chinese people described from an outsider's viewpoint are "neither fish nor fowl." It is easy to find illustrations depicting Chinese women dressed in Tang dynasty (618 to 896 AD) clothing with Song dynasty (960 to 1279) hair fashions, and men wearing Ming dynasty (1368 to 1644) long robs with Qing dynasty (1644 to 1911) pigtails. Quite often in the book illustrations, Chinese people are wearing traditional Japanese slippers. The folk tale, "Little Chow Weighs an Elephant" in the basal reader Flying Hoofs published by Scott, Foresman and Company represents Chinese characters in a Japanese style of clothing, hair, and shoes.

Most book illustrations have depicted Chinese to the readers as having no character, and no personality. Lon Po Po is one of the few translations from an original Chinese fairy tale. It is illustrated by Ed Young and published by Philomel Books. Its illustration was honored as the best illustrated book by the Caldecott Award in 1992. This interesting story relates the wisdom and courage of three Chinese girls on an adventure when their mother goes away. However, in this book the beautiful story is ruined by the illustrations. Generally the illustrations do not show the courage or wisdom of the girls which the story tells us. All three girls are depicted as having the same strange facial expressions, the same facial structures, and the same kind of terrible looking eyes with small pupils. The effect of these illustrations show Chinese as all having a similar appearance with eccentric personalities and odd physical structures so that the children may come to view Chinese as being strange.

However, there is one illustration have seen that I would praise. This illustration is

found in the Chinese fairy tale, The Nightingale, by Hans Christian Andersen that appears in several different basal readers. This version of this fairy tale published in the reading series Distant Views by Scott, Foresman and Company in 1989 has a beautiful Chinese style of painting in a bright harmonious color. It represents the Chinese traditional idea of life. In spite of the fact that it does not accurately convey the quality of Chinese imperial power, the pavilions, palaces, bridges, singing birds, and flowers giving forth their fragrance in the illustrations deliver the sense of beauty found in the Chinese culture.

Misconception and misinterpretation of Chinese culture resulting from an author's limited knowledge of China. The imagined, adapted, and universal stories all show the authors' lack of knowledge about China. For example, a children book, The Story About Ping, written by Marjorie Flack and Kurt Wiese, published by The Viking Press, is a fairy tale about an adventure of a little duck, Ping. This little cute story fails to deliver correct information since the author simply transplanted the story's location to the Yangtze River in China. The Yangtze River is 6300 kilometers long, the third longest river in the world. The Yangtze River water runs rapidly as it drops from the mountains to the sea. The Yangtze River does have branch rivers and big lakes, but they are not called the Yangtze River. If the author had some knowledge about the Yangtze River or if he had seen it, he would conclude no ducks can live there. Ducks live on the banks of a creek, by a pond, or by a lake which flows slowly.

Social studies textbooks are also guilty of providing information with geographical mistakes, language errors, philosophical flaws, and other kinds of misinterpretations about Chinese. One example I found, in a chapter of a world history textbook, The Human Expression, published by Harper & Row, Publisher, Inc, there is a section on Chinese Taoist philosophy-Yin/Yang. In the book the explanation of this ancient Chinese philosophy is completely opposite to what it really is.

A second example, a second grade social studies textbook, Mystery Sneaker, published by Ginn and Company, talks about how Chinese write in columns, from the top-right-hand corner down. The text tells readers that this is the way modern Chinese people write and read. In fact, this is not the truth. Presently, most of the time, the top-down writing style in Chinese is considered art and viewed as calligraphy.

Stereotypes are portrayed as the result of an authors' negative attitudes. Limited knowledge about Chinese can lead authors to make mistakes, but sometimes the stereotypes of Chinese culture come directly from an author's negative attitudes. Learning from a book means to receive information directly from a particular author's viewpoint.

Some books have talked about the importance of family in Chinese culture. Ironically, more than 80% of the stories I examined do not have a two-parent family. The story, The Seeing Stick, in Rhymes And Reasons, published by Macmillian Publishing Company, has only the father and daughter. Lon Po Po only has the mother and daughters. The Five Chinese Brothers describes the mother and her five sons. This is just to name a few. Women are underrepresented in the Chinese stories generally. Chinese males are generally shown as being either emperors or working with agriculture.

A chapter in the social studies textbook, Afro-Asian: Culture Studies, published by

Barron's Educational Series, Inc, reflects the author's negative attitude toward the Chinese culture. The author stated that Chinese are successful in using acupuncture as the only anesthetic given to parents when Chinese doctors operate, but claims the Chinese cannot explain the reasons behind their success. I do not believe such wrong statements come from the author's lack of knowledge but rather from his negative attitudes, since it would take only a little research to learn the correct answer. The message students may get is that Chinese acupuncture is a mystery, and that the Chinese are too stupid to figure out how it works. But the truth is, according to Chinese traditional medical theory, that acupuncture is a medical treatment based upon a series of physiological theories. It is a kind of topical stimulate causing central nerve system reflection and nerve liquid regulation. Such answers we can easily find from Chinese reference books.

Another two statements in the same textbook are that: (1) "Unlike Westerners, the Chinese people had no interest in changing nature by science to meet their needs and wishes." (p 282). (2) " The Chinese people have had the ability to wait, not to be impatient or in a hurry. People of the West, especially Americans, find great difficulty in understanding this about the Chinese. It is more difficult to talk to the Chinese about quick solutions to problems which are very important to us today. " (p 282). This kind of comparison of the two cultures distorts the fact. Most people know Chinese people had many inventions to contribute to the world's human civilization. The great canal with its distance of 1794 kilometers was built in 500 B.C. to connect with five rivers. The conclusions of Chinese do not intend to change nature for their life and are not interested in solving problems quickly came from the authors' own mind, which lead to a misconception of the Chinese culture. In other sections in the same chapter, the author paid much more attention to a discussion of the past of China rather than to modern China, and presented more negative characteristics of Chinese culture than positive ones. As a consequence, students are led to compare the old Chinese style with modern American. Negative attitude in students textbooks and literature books quite often are found in the content and the illustrations. Such inaccurate learning resources run counter to the desire of promoting global education.

The results of examining student textbooks and children's literature on Chinese culture revealed that the many textbooks and much children's literature contain problems in terms of misconceptions, inaccuracies, and negative attitudes from the authors. Biased reading materials about any culture do not support the ideal of multiculturalism. We need high quality thoughtful textbooks and literature for our children, and a review of these material by individuals who are knowledgeable about the cultures portrayed. But until this happens teachers, librarians, and parents need to be aware of biased reading materials when recommending books to children.

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TECHNOLOGY TRANSFER IN HUMAN SERVICES: THE CASE OF BASIC ECCLESIAL COMMUNITIES

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TECHNOLOGY TRANSFER IN HUMAN SERVICES: THE CASE OF BASIC ECCLESIAL COMMUNITIES

ABSTRACT

Pursuing an integrated social-religious mission, small groups known as Basic Christian Communities or *Comunidades Eclesiales de Base* have successfully promoted mutual aid and development in poor communities in Latin America and have been widely imitated. This paper describes this phenomenon and examines its appeal and the implications for the application of a similar model in other societies.

Key Words: technology transfer, human services, Basic Christian Communities, mutual support

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INTRODUCTION

Despite fairly steady advances in the quality of life for the average citizen in Western countries, nagging social problems remain and grow in size, severity and complexity, especially amongst the most marginalized in those societies. The limited success of attempts to address these problems, a tighter economy and increasingly tight fisted public attitudes toward human services have taken the search for solutions to less developed nations which have long had to struggle to meet social needs with scarce resources. However, the transplanting of models from other cultures is fraught with potential problems because those models can be so closely tied to the traditions and institutions of the society in which they originated.

In Latin America a movement initiated by the Catholic Church and grounded in an integral view of human nature has been effective in helping the poor and disenfranchised improve their lot. This movement of community-based, small groups called *Comunidades Eclesiales de Base* (CEBs) has attracted widespread attention and imitation. The more literal translation of the name is Basic Ecclesial Communities but they are most often referred to in English as Basic Christian Communities.

Groups similar to the Latin American CEBs have assisted in meeting essential human needs and helping communities work for change in appreciably different cultural contexts In central and South America, Asia and Africa. Other groups in these and other regions, which vary in their aims and methods from the Latin American prototype, also call themselves Basic Christian or Basic Eclesial Communities.

This paper traces the history and make-up of the Latin American CEBs and describes how they promote mutual assistance, individual and community development. Possible explanations for the success of these groups and for their broad appeal are offered. Also discussed are the implications for cross cultural transfer of the model which may be of interest to human service workers, those involved in social ministries and others in the so called "developed nations" in their attempts to help empower socially, economically and politically impoverished neighborhoods and their residents. The paper is based on a review of the literature,discussions with those familiar with the CEB movement in Latin America, as well as by observations of Christian Communities, principally in El Salvador.

THE ROOTS OF THE CEBs

A contemporary interpretation of the earliest Christian communities, CEBs began to take form in Latin America in the 1960's. CEBs are essentially small groups of people who come together to read and reflect on the bible and its meaning in their daily lives. The CEBs do not appear to have any single point of origin. The Catholic Church in Brazil and Panama are their most frequently cited progenitors. Although the vast majority of CEBs are of Roman Catholic, there are those which represent other Christian traditions or are ecumenical in character. Some also sees the possibility of non-Christian base communities (Hebblethwaite,1993) .

In their advancement of personal growth, community building and advocacy, the prototypical CEBs are reminiscent of European models of spiritual renewal and social reform such as the Cursillos and Catholic Action to which missionaries to Latin America had been exposed. The more immediate roots of the CEBs can be traced to the sweeping changes in the Roman Catholic Church brought about by the Second Vatican Council 1962-65, and subsequent regional church meetings in Puebla, Mexico in 1968 and Medellin, Columbia in 1979. Among the outcomes of these historic meetings were an increased emphasis on evangelization, lay participation in the church, and a realization that it is necessary to address the context in which the people live and practice their faith. These new directions and a recognition of the deplorable conditions in which most Latin Americans lived were reflected in the commitment by the church to a "preferential option for the poor of which the CEBs were to be a part (Dodson, 1986: Adriance, 1986).

A practical consideration for the church then was how to accomplish these goals while it was experiencing, at the very least, a relative decline in the number of clergy and religious in proportion to a rapidly expanding population. The CEBs were also seen as a response to this

dilemma. They were to serve the spiritual and material needs of the faithful through scripture study, liturgical celebrations and mutual assistance.

The CEBs were viewed by some in the church as a bulwark against the spread of communism (Lernoux, 1982). That is rather ironic since the conservative church hierarchy and the local power elites, with which the church has historically been associated, equated with Marxism and subversion the subsequent involvement of the CEBs in consciousness raising and community development among the marginalized. In fact, the principal ideological genesis and theoretical underpinnings of the CEBs can be found in two related movements which also had their origins in Latin America.

The changes in the church and the conditions of the mass of people in the region contributed to the elaboration of a theology of liberation in which salvation is something that begins in the here-and-now and something in which people can and should affect. They become "subjects rather than objects of their own history" (Gutierrez, 1973).

Emge (1988) who traces the CEBs to similar roots, identifies two central points within liberation theology which are particularly relevant to CEBs: the indivisibility of human nature - matter and spirit - and the corresponding need for theology to spring from and reflect human experience. Liberation theologians maintain that Christ did not come to save souls but people. The dualism of body and soul and the emphasis on the latter found in classical theology is seen as having its source in the Greek philosophy and modes of thought that were current during the era in which Christianity emerged.

Emge further contrasts the traditional, highly abstract development of theology in monasteries and universities based on philosophical concepts and methods, with the work of contemporary Latin American theologians who see theology as being embedded in the reality of the average person, family and community. These theologians also look more to social sciences than philosophy for ways of viewing reality.

The work of Brazilian educator Paulo Freire became popular at about the time that the CEBs arose. Freire's learner-centered approach to adult education leads people to question their fatalistic acceptance of their lot, to better understand the environment in which they live, to articulate their needs and to take action to have them met. Fundamental to Freire's approach are "conscientization" or the increase in awareness of the circumstances and challenges of life through "praxis", that is systematic, objective analysis and reflection combined with appropriate action. This requires active involvement in community life, the search for causal principles, a balanced appreciation of what is as well as an openness to what might be and dialogue rather than polemics. The basis for action is shared daily experience (Freire,1993).

THE PROTOTYPICAL CEB

Attempts to describe CEBs have usually centered on the three words which make up their name - basic, ecclesial and community. Among CEBs, "basic" can have several meanings relating either to the positioning of the CEBs and their members in society or in the church. In regard to society, "base" most often refers to those with the fewest resources and lowest status, those who are disenfranchised, marginalized and often destitute. In regard to the church, "base" can mean a position at the bottom of the traditional, top-down, church structure or it can refer to the essential importance of the faithful to, and their role in, the church (Levine, 1986 a,b; Bruneau 1980,1986).

There is a unanimity in the literature concerning the ecclesial aspect of the CEBs, i.e. their relationship with the church, especially regarding the central role of church personnel in the initiation of CEBs. They may have begun with or without the encouragement or even the approval of the local bishop or they have been part of a deliberate diocesan plan. Whatever the impetus, it has been clergy or religious, at times assisted by church-trained, lay people, who have been responsible for the establishment of CEBs (Berryman, 1981; Bruneau, 1980; MacEoin, 1988).

Moreover, CEBs usually have some church approbation, more in nations with progressive hierarchies, less where the bishops are more conservative. This relationship provides the CEBs a measure of protection in that, in the church, they have a social institution that frequently is the only one that has influence with, or the only one which dares to oppose often dictatorial regimes. The protective mantle of the church proves less effective when church leaders begin to distance

themselves from their former associates in the ruling elites. When this happens, the church itself may be persecuted and the CEBs violently repressed.

This affiliation with the church has been beneficial for the CEBs in more concrete ways as well. They are able, again with variations, to make use of church infrastructure and resources for training, communication, advocacy and other purposes. The common tie to the church also makes it possible for individual CEBs to feel a collective sense of purpose and commitment above and beyond their particular group. In addition, the church offers the CEBs continuity and a common tradition as well as the validation of a "higher power" for their efforts.

In return, the CEBs serve as at least an indirect link for the church to and large segments of the population it might not otherwise be able to reach. Reilly calls the CEBs "para-ecclesiastical" organizations and suggests that they may also act as surrogates for the church in regard to stances on public issues on which direct church involvement might appear inappropriate. (Reilly, 1986).

Even though this is a mutually beneficial relationship, it is not free from sometimes considerable tension. The agendas of the prototypical CEBs, although based on biblical values and informed by church teaching, are set by the members. The tendency of the church has been to give direction to if not control the CEBs (Levine, 1986b; Reilly, 1986).

Territorial proximity and similarity of class are characteristic of "community" in CEBs (Bruneau, 1980; Bruneau, 1986) They are small groups, most often of ten to thirty active members, who live in the same conditions in the same neighborhood. Having comparable backgrounds and lifestyles makes for a meaningful identity, shared concerns and the solidarity which can mobilize individuals to persevere in collaborative efforts despite personal risk. Homogeneity of participants also helps to assure the equality that the Freriean theory of learning posits as necessary to achieve true development (Bruneau, 1986; Freire, 1993; Reilly, 1986). CEBs are communities in the fullest sense of the word. They are made up of individuals and families, of both genders and all generations including children who are considered as much a part of the group as adults (Hebblethwaite, 1993)

THE SOCIAL DIMENSION OF THE CEB MISSION

The spirituality of the CEBs has a definite social dimension. There is general agreement that a group which "adopts no stance of social criticism or action...", is not a CEB (Ruether, 1981). Just as their is no separation of the spiritual and the material in liberation theology, for the CEB member, "the religious and social are parts of one commitment to God and humankind", (Smith, 1986).

The impact of the group reaches beyond the CEBs into the larger community. Scriptural injunctions to "love thy neighbor", to "be thy brother's keeper", to "help the sick, widows and orphans", etc., guide the behavior of members. This and the fact that their concerns are inextricably linked to those of others in similar circumstances leads participants in CEBs to collaborate with others to improve the conditions in which they all live.

In one of the few research findings which relate to this aspect of CEBs, members were found to be much more likely than non CEB members to be involved in working on community problems, more apt to believe that the problems could be solved and solved by collective rather than individual action (Bruneau, 1986).

Ciudad Romero is named for Oscar Romero the Archbishop of San Salvador who died because of his support of the poor. This CEB, in rural Cuscatlán, is a group of tents, a few simple concrete homes with others under construction. Those not involved in construction till the tired but still productive soil to grow food for the community. Care of the sick and disabled is also shared. Family problems are mediated by individuals chosen for their ability in this regard. Those who can, teach children and adults in a "classroon" consisting of a few ancient desks arrayed in a semicircle in the shade of some tall trees.

Housing, food and other resources in Ciudad Romero are distributed according to need. Residents say that before the CEB was formed they sometimes helped each other but people would also hold back assistance and take advantage of others. Life in the community is still hard but it is rendered meaningful by the purposefulness and inherent optimism of the CEB and made more bearable by the voluntary collaboration of participants.

THE CEBs AS MUTUAL AID GROUPS

CEBs have been described as a form of mutual support group (Hendlin, 1989; McWhirter et al., 1988; Evans, 1992). However, Latin America does not have the precedent for the organization of mutual support groups that there is in the developed world (Bruneau 1980, Bruneau 1986). This is even more the case amongst the poor. Therefore, more time has to be spent in the CEBs creating trust and the development of individual confidence and competence before the group can work as a group to help each other and the community (Evans, 1988). This is not unlike the needs of the marginalized in the developed world.

Furthermore, like some of the well known self help groups, e.g. twelve step programs, the CEBs have writings which embody their principles and traditions. In the case of the CEBs it is the bible rather than statements of belief or codes of behavior which serve as the guide. The participants in CEBs attempt to understand. life situations through scriptual reflection which is directed neither by rigidly dogma nor literal interpretation. The lessons discerned from this reflective perspective on scripture do clearly show the influence of values such as justice, charity, equality, community and social responsibility. An observer cited by Emge (1988) explains that the attempt is not so much to interpret the bible, rather to interpret life with the help of the bible.

McWhirter, et al. (1988) identify the characteristics which all mutual support groups, including CEBs, have in common: a condition of powerlessness of the individuals who make up the group; the fostering of individual empowerment; and, acting as a reference group which offers both an identity and foundation for action. However, there are some important differences between CEBs and more traditional mutual support groups on these characteristics.

While participants in issue- and problem-oriented groups may also feel powerless in one or more aspects of their lives, members of the prototypical Latin American CEBs have had virtually no say in the conditions in which they live. Moreover, this is something more than, individual powerlessness, it is the disenfranchisement of whole communities.

In a remote rural EL Salvador there is a CEB which had been formed just a few weeks before the visit by the author. It is made up of refugees from the fighting between the government and guerrillas. These men, women and children had to flee their homes with what they could carry and slept in the open. They awoke one morning on the fields where they now eke out a living. Their number and strength reduced by hunger, disease and aftereffects of war, they could run no more. Their only resources were each other. No social safety net existed for the refugees, not even a frayed and tattered one.

Except for subsistence farming, and after several months of hard work this was yet fully realized, there was nothing to sustain them. Even stealing food in order to survive, which natural law and common decency would condone, was not an option. Theft, had it not already been precluded by their isolation, would have been by the certainty of swift, violent and indiscriminate retribution against the entire community. The chance that the refugees might be able to gain legal title to the abandoned land which they now occupied was slim. They not only had less than nominal representation in the corridors of power, their very existence was not recognized.

It is interesting to note that the CEBs not only empower the community but expose the more limited, categorial forms of discrimination to searching analysis as well for example, *machismo*, the tradition of male supremacy (Berryman, 1986). Women receive recognition for the value to the community of their care taking functions and fill non traditional and leadership roles as well.

All mutual support groups promote individual empowerment through participation, problem solving and support. However, it is important to realize that the emphasis given to individual and group goals in the CEBs is different. Commenting on North American mutual support groups Swindler (1994) says that they "serve individual aims and affirm the self and ... make no enduring demands". Whereas in CEBs the skills individuals acquire are expected to be put to the use of the group or community and individualism is discouraged (McWhirter et al., 1988).

The community of Diez de Octubre perches precariously on a hillside in the capital, San Salvador. A system of shallow, concrete-lined trenches and gravity carry human waste down the slope and to an open but flowing sewer that was once a stream. The decision to construct this modest public health project was arrived at by consensus. Residents who were able to obtain

building materials contributed them to the project although they could have used them to improve the safety and comfort of their own ramshackle homes.

The McWhirters in quoting Fromm (1941) offer a concise explanation of one of the most important roles of the CEBs. "In a society of social disorganization and cultural disintegration, a point of reference is essential". CEBs are that point of reference among the poor in Latin America as they are and could be in like communities elsewhere. Members of the Salvadorian CEBs that were visited gave the name of the CEB as their place of residence rather than referring to the official name of the town or area.

Group action, takes on more overtly political overtones in repressive societies, such as those from which the prototypical CEBs emerged (Bruneau, 1980; Berryman, 1981, MacEoin, 1988; Pavera 1981). Actions that would seem to be as politically innocuous as the construction of the sewer trenches by the people of Diez de Octubre can lead to such terrifying and arbitrary harassment as the occasional helicopter gunship hovering above the roofs of its fragile dwellings.

Despite this indiscriminate and over determined repression, CEBs have helped to create some of the mediating institutions - social, civic, religious - which have expanded the limited representational structures and helping systems which existed in their societies (Bruneau, 1986). CEB members have also been active in these nascent democratic organizations.

In a climate of overwhelming repression including seemingly random terror and official violence in which tens of thousands have died, it would not be difficult to imagine that some participants in the prototypical CEBs have become actively involved in revolutionary activities, but the majority have not. In fact, the CEBs can be relatively apolitical in any partisan sense (MacEoin, 1988; Mainwaring, 1986). Evidence to support this contention comes from two different countries at two different points in time - Brazil in the 1970's and El Salvador from before 1980 until the early 1990's. In both countries CEBs were particularly strong during periods of repression which were followed by moderate democratic reforms. It might be thought that the experience of the CEBs would translate into votes for the parties which championed radical reform. It did not (Adriance, 1986; Palumbo, 1994).

DISCUSSION

There are parallels between communities from which the Latin American CEBs emerged and those in developed countries. Residents of inner city neighborhoods in the United States, for example, also suffer economic, social and political deprivation. The Latin American CEBs have confronted obstacles of that kind, survived and grown in places where secular efforts to improve the lives of the marginalized have made very limited gains.

This resilience and the accomplishments of the CEBs are among the reasons that they have had such strong appeal in other lands. Another is the selfless and frequently heroic dedication of their members. That dedication is, of course, one of the key and perhaps the primary reason for the success of the movement. Other factors including the legitimization and support of the church have been important, and at times essential, but not sufficient to account for the success of these groups.

As enviable as the totality of individual commitment found in the prototypical CEBs might be and however great a force for good groups of such selfless individuals could be, it is unrealistic to expect that the same intensity of spirit can be generated in developed nations. It is a spirit born of the near absolute lack of alternatives. To the extent that powerlessness and repression exist in the "North", they are indictments of these more wealthy nations. However, the degree of powerlessness and the magnitude of repression in developed nations in the worst of times and at their most severe is of a lesser order than what much of the citizenry in many Latin countries have experienced as a matter of course.

It is not surprising then that some of the most faithful "translations" of the prototypical model, including the unconditioned fidelity of members to each other and their cause, have been in societies like the Philippines (O'Brien, 1993) where the majority also live in miserable conditions and have little control over their fate Thus, it would appear that the key variables on which successful transfer of the Latin American CEB model turns are more economic and political than they are strictly cultural and it would further seem that the extreme, negative positions of underdeveloped nations on these variables make the most fertile soil for the prototypical CEB model.

What is more, the creation of alternative structures for representation and assistance that the CEBs successfully facilitate may be counterproductive in the more advantaged societies and waste the precious human capital that communities which would otherwise be ideal sites for CEBs posses. Though dormant and undeveloped for too many, there already exist in those societies the mechanisms through which to make needs known and to receive redress.

Nonetheless, without requiring or expecting the degree of commitment found in the prototypical model, the pockets of marginalization which exist in the developed world can benefit from the efforts of church supported, community-based groups which promote mutual assistance and individual and community development. CEB-like groups can train community residents to actuate the potential inherent in the relatively more evolved democratic processes and helping systems in those societies rather than by duplicating them. They can promote and model non-partisan, non-advesarial activism. CEB-like groups can also engender the kind of transcendental, humanistic values which have inspired and sustained the Latin American CEBs and given so people reason to hope.

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ADAPTATION OF TRADITIONAL HR PROCESSES

FOR TOTAL QUALITY ENVIRONMENTS

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ADAPTATION OF TRADITIONAL HR PROCESSES FOR TOTAL QUALITY ENVIRONMENTS

ABSTRACT

The worldwide Total Quality (TQ) movement, which emphasizes continuous process improvement and teamwork, is redefining the context in which workers behave in organizations. Traditional human resources (HR) processes tend to be static rather than dynamic and oriented to the individual rather than team. This paper will address the concern of how HR processes should adapt to support the cultural changes in occurring in TQ organizations.

Key words: Total Quality, human resources, cultural changes

W. Edwards Deming, a leader of the worldwide Total Quality Management movement, developed "Fourteen Points" and "Seven Deadly Diseases" that are radically altering the look of modern-day organizations (e.g., Walton, 1990). Deming was highly critical of merit pay, individual bonuses, ranking employees on the basis of overall performance, and management-by-objectives (e.g., Deming, 1993; Walton, 1986). Deming believed that ranking and merit pay single individuals out as poor performers and ultimately rob them of their dignity. Merit pay and individual bonuses fuel the employee's extrinsic motivation (i.e., motivation that comes from external sources such as the boss) but do very little for increasing one's intrinsic motivation (i.e., motivation that comes from liking to perform the job). The organization's assumption that poorly performing workers are responsible for an organization's lack of profitability is, in his view, terribly misguided (Deming, 1975). A fundamental attribution error is oftentimes committed when things go awry, with the employee being blamed instead of possible breakdowns in the system.

"Full participation and personal growth" is often used to describe the kind of working environment that Total Quality (TQ) workers enjoy. Hackman and Oldham's (1976) growth need strength (GNS) or need to grow is closely related to the intrinsic motivation concept. Persons with high GNS or high intrinsic motivation have a positive regard for improving the way they perform their work. They take the initiative on their own to analyze and change work processes. These employees thrive on the organization's push for continuous improvement. They strive for excellence, not for extrinsic rewards, but because they feel personal gratification in providing the customer with a high quality product or service at a low cost.

Management's role in organizations that value continuous improvement is to manage change, meaning that processes need to change and so do the workers (Imai, 1986). Total quality organizations (TQO) ask all levels of employees to become thinking employees, continuously searching for ways to improve the work being done (Deming, 1993) . Workers at all echelons in TQO are merging thinking and doing in their work (Senge, 1992). Smart workers who work exceedingly hard are desired. Decisions in TQO should be based on accumulated data rather than hunches and simplifying heuristics (Walton, 1986).

Nadler and Tushman's (1980) Congruence Model says that organizational effectiveness is contingent upon how well the organization's subsystems fit together as a whole. The HR subsystem of the 1980s organization typically stressed job analysis, work samples, technical training, appraisals based on the hierarchy-of-authority notion, merit pay, and progressive discipline, all of which seem to be incongruent with the TQ philosophy. Allowing TQO to function with a traditional HR subsystem originally designed for the bureaucratic organization is analogous to pouring new wine into old skins. HR departments in TQO are therefore scrambling to redefine themselves in the context of TQ. TQ themes such as continuous improvement, quality, personal growth, empowerment, teamwork, and leadership need to be integrated into all organizational subsystems, including HR. The remaining portion of this paper will be spent redefining HR processes (i.e., job analysis, recruitment, selection, training, performance appraisal, rewards and punishment) to make them more compatible with the themes and values of TQ.

Job Analysis

Job analysis, as traditionally understood, is a process of collecting detailed information (e.g., tasks, knowledge, skills, and abilities) about a particular job. In the more bureaucratic organization, it is the foundation for recruitment, selection, training, performance appraisal, and compensation processes. These HR activities cannot properly proceed without a detailed picture of the job (i.e., job analysis). Existing job analysis methods (e.g., Functional Job Analysis, Task Inventory) seem to be incongruent with the needs of TQO. Jobs with a "fixed bundle of tasks" and

fixed set of knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) may be a thing of the past.

TQO have some serious choices to make when it comes to the issue of job analysis. (1) They could modify existing job analysis methods. TQ themes (e.g., quality, customer service, continuous improvement) could be incorporated into these methods (Sanchez, Fernandez, Korbin, & Valdes, 1993). Each task that is assigned to a worker could be rated not only on frequency and importance but also on TQ dimensions such as customer focus, quality, and continuous improvement. (2) Instead of task statements, TQO could focus attention on broader duty statements providing increased flexibility (Sanchez et al., 1993). A list of duties would then be constructed that reflect the work necessary to meet the needs of the customer. (3) TQO could move away from the job analysis concept and toward team analysis and organization analysis. The unit of analysis would no longer be specific activities in a particular job but would be the work assigned to the team. In this way, the team members have the responsibility for performing all of the processes involved in providing a final product or service to the customer. In addition, key characteristics of the organization's culture should play a role in shaping HR processes. Therefore, organization analysis (Offermann & Gowing, 1993) could be done to produce an organization description (i.e., description of the organization's culture and the KSAs necessary to work effectively in this culture).

Recruitment

Recruitment Sources

Most organizations have not scrutinized the effectiveness of different recruitment sources. By default, newspaper advertisements and internal recruitment are used to attract applications for position openings. Wanous and Colella (1989) reported that different recruitment sources yield different voluntary turnover rates. Across occupations, informal recruitment sources such as employee referral and walk-ins produce the lowest voluntary turnover rates. Breaugh (1981) found that the quality of job performance was higher when employees were initially recruited at a professional convention, through a professional journal ad or as a walk-in instead of through a newspaper ad or college recruitment. For this sample of research scientists, the relationship found between recruitment sources and the quality of job performance makes a great deal of sense. Heeding Deming's call for data-driven decision making in TQO, recruitment data should be analyzed to ascertain whether certain recruitment sources yield higher performance not only in the domain of quality of performance but in other TQ domains such as adaptability, leadership and continuous improvement. Following Caldwell and Spivey's (1983) suggestion, this analysis can be done separately for each minority group to develop a high-caliber yet diverse TQ work force.

Realistic Organization Previews

A realistic job preview (RJP) is a recruitment strategy that provides a realistic picture of the job to applicants. Applicants are given accurate job information, which means both positive and negative aspects of the job are shared. One intent of the RJP is to reduce the new hire's initial level of job dissatisfaction. RJPs should theoretically reduce the organization's voluntary turnover rate because there are better matches between the qualifications of the new hires and the requirements of the jobs. As the name implies, RJPs focus on a specific job. Since "jobs" in TQO tend to be fluid as well as broadly defined, RJPs appear less useful than would a realistic organizational preview (ROP). ROPs provide applicants with accurate information about the organization's culture and climate (Breaugh, 1983). Applicants are exposed to: (1) the prevailing corporate values (e.g., valuing the customer); (2) performance norms (e.g., high quality of performance); (3) HR strategies unique to TQO (e.g., self-directed teams); and (4) appropriate

behaviors (e.g., cross-functional integration). Similar to the RJP, ROPs are intended to reduce the shock that new hires may encounter in TQ environments and ultimately to improve the person-organization fit.

Selection

Some organizations attempt to increase validity (i.e., ability to predict applicant performance) by utilizing work sample tests. Work samples give applicants the chance to perform the job to determine their suitability for the opening. "Seeing is believing" is a saying that applies. Seeing good performance on the test is believing that the applicant will perform well on the job. Since the work assigned to employees in TQO changes quickly from day to day, work samples that are highly specific to a set of tasks in a job may be less suitable. By default, other selection devices such as biographical data (biodata), structured interviews, personality tests, and cognitive ability tests may be more appropriate for these environments.

Quick Learners

Hunter and Hunter's (1984) review of cognitive ability tests provides a strong clue to the assessment of mental abilities. They reported that cognitive ability tests measuring numerical ability, verbal reasoning, verbal comprehension, etc., have an excellent record in predicting job performance across many kinds of jobs. There is a downside to these tests. Cognitive test scores for some minority groups are historically lower than scores for non-minority groups. Organizational goals of increasing work force diversity and increasing the intelligence of the work force may at times be at odds.

GNS

Biodata items such as "How often have you set a goal to do better than anyone else on something?" may be an effective predictor of GNS. Similarly, the Job-Fit Inventory may be useful in predicting one's need for personal growth (Feuer & Lee, 1988). Inventory items, such as "I find it enjoyable to constantly learn new things about my job", may indicate the applicant's fit for a continuous learning environment. Ulrich and Trumbo (1965) suggest that the structured interview may be particularly adept at predicting the applicant's intrinsic motivation. Consistent with TQ's theme of empowerment, team members should be entrusted with the responsibility of conducting these interviews (Blackburn & Rosen, 1993). Designing valid interview questions and then interviewing candidates for the team's position openings can be effectively accomplished by team members. The results of Barrick and Mount's (1991) meta-analysis suggest that personality tests assessing conscientiousness are surprisingly good predictors of job performance across job categories. There may be a relationship between the personality trait, conscientiousness, and one's need to grow professionally. Future research should explore this possibility.

Interpersonal Skills

Interpersonal skills keenly needed in TQO are: (1) the ability to work effectively in a team environment, which also means relating cross-functionally; (2) the ability to communicate effectively with diverse groups; (3) the ability to relate effectively with the customer; and (4) the ability to lead. The structured interview is the method of choice when it comes to assessing the applicant's level of interpersonal skills (Ulrich & Trumbo, 1965). Structured interview questions that ask the applicant "How often have you had to deal with an angry customer?" may be effective in predicting customer-service skills. Also, Wagner and Moch's (1986) Individualism-Collectivism Scale (e.g., "I prefer to work with others in a work group rather than to work alone") might be

helpful in assessing the applicant's desire to work in a team environment.

Training

Needs Assessment

A prevalent theme in TQO is life-long employee learning (Senge, 1992). Not only do TQO expect life-long learning, but high GNS workers will expect life-long learning as well. Continual employee learning will become a way of organizational life. In line with TQ's empowerment notion, Goff, Sheckley, and Hastings (1992) suggested that TQ workers should become self-directed in their learning. That is, they should be responsible for assessing their own learning needs and initiating action to meet these needs. Self-directed learning should increase the employee's acceptance of training content as well as commitment to transfer the training from the "classroom" to the work setting.

Training Methods

Considering the emphasis of hiring highly motivated workers in TQO, training methods suited to the adult learner may work best. Methods that are active, student-centered, and team-centered (e.g., case discussion, behavior modeling) rather than methods that are passive, teacher-centered, and individually focused (e.g., lecture, videotapes) seem appropriate for these continuous learning environments.

Evaluation of TQ Training

Corporate training programs have in the past either not been evaluated or evaluated improperly. At best, the reactions of participants to the training may have been collected, and the judgment of the training program's effectiveness may be based solely on the results of these surveys. Kirkpatrick (1959) long ago advised that four criteria be used in the evaluation process: (1) participant reaction; (2) learning that has occurred because of the training; (3) on-the-job behavior changes; and (4) positive organizational outcomes. Kirkpatrick's last two criteria are considered the best because they indicate whether or not the newly learned skills or knowledge has been transferred to the job setting. Simply put, training is deemed successful when positive on-the-job behavior changes are noted in the latest performance appraisal and when favorable organizational outcomes, measured in an objective way, are also noted after training. Considering the money that is being spent on TQ training and considering Deming's call for more data-based decision making, it makes sense to use these criteria to evaluate the effectiveness of TQ training. Both criteria could incorporate relevant TQ themes, such as customer-service, quality, teamwork and cost reductions, in the evaluation process.

Performance Appraisal

Deming contended that performance should not be evaluated for the purpose of dispensing rewards and punishments but for feedback and continuous self-improvement. With this new direction for appraisals in TQO, supervisors and workers alike could be allowed to participate in the development of the performance appraisal system. Increased employee acceptance of the appraisal process should occur with such participation.

Appraisal Formats

Organizations have shown marginal interest in knowing their raters' preferences for different rating formats. Since the performance appraisal process in TQO is attempting to foster self-improvement and not the attainment of monetary rewards, it should be a user-friendly system. User friendliness should be broadened to include not only the format preferences of supervisors but also the preferences of those being evaluated. The appraisal format that is best suited to meet the varied needs of both the supervisor and the employee should be adopted. The one stipulation that TQO could make is that TQ themes of quality, customer service, and teamwork permeate the items in the preferred format.

Friedman and Cornelius (1976) found that supervisors who constructed the performance appraisal format rated with less error than did supervisors who were uninvolved in the format-construction process. Friedman and Cornelius attributed the improved quality of ratings to involved supervisors' increased understanding of the rating instrument. Moving one step further, TQO should consider allowing both supervisory and non-supervisory personnel the opportunity to co-produce the format. The benefits attained through this empowerment process should hopefully offset the amount of time and expense involved.

Appraisal Training

Performance appraisal researchers have thoroughly evaluated the effectiveness of different rater training programs (e.g., rater error training, frame-of-reference training, observation training). Appraisal research has not, on the other hand, considered the orientation and training needs of employees who are being evaluated. It is commonly accepted that self-ratings produce leniency error (Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988). TQ employees are being asked to rate themselves (i.e., self-ratings) and rate each other (i.e., peer ratings), but little effort is made to orientate and train them to observe performance from a common frame of reference. Raters in TQO, which include managerial and non-managerial workers, could be given behavioral examples depicting excellent performance in a TQ environment (e.g., an employee suggesting a cost-saving idea, helping team members catch up with assignments).

Sources of Ratings

The best way to provide performance feedback to TQ workers is with 360-degree appraisal feedback (Nowack, 1993). Feedback is gathered from "all around" the worker. Multiple raters from different organizational perspectives (e.g., boss, self, co-workers, subordinates, internal customers, and external customers) complete the ratings on each TQ employee. Averages are computed for each performance dimension and charted over time (i.e., ipsative scores) to ascertain whether the worker is showing signs of continuous progress.

Rewards and Punishment

Team Incentives

Deming made it clear that individual rewards bring down the whole system. Individuals rewarded for individual performance are more committed to personal gain than organizational gain. Team incentives and gainsharing, on the other hand, are more compatible with Deming's philosophy. Imai (1986) added that rewarding teams for gradual improvements in work processes instead of end results should foster a continuous improvement environment. Under this arrangement, teams solve problems together, to rid the system of processes that do not add value

to the customer. Similar to the team approach, gainsharing encourages larger work units to better their record in quality and quantity of performance as well as customer service. With improvement comes equal monetary bonuses for all unit members. Effective unit-wide problem solving should occur as a result.

Positive Discipline

The progressive discipline system has historically been used by supervisors to deal with problem employees. Under this system, the supervisor hopes to cure a low performer's problems by progressively levying more severe penalties when the particular problem persists (i.e., oral warning, written warning, three-day suspension without pay, and termination). This system treats the problem employee in a childlike way, creating an adversarial relationship between the supervisor and employee (Grote, 1994). With such a discipline system, fear and failure is emphasized, producing a work place that is contrary to Deming's hopes.

Since self-direction is a theme in TQO, an alternative system, discipline-without-punishment, might be better. Unlike the progressive discipline system, poor performers in the discipline-without-punishment system take more personal responsibility for correcting their own problems. They are treated in an adultlike manner by the organization, hoping that self-discipline rather than supervisory discipline will eventually correct substandard performance (Grote, 1994). Punishment is not emphasized with this approach. Supervisors handle poor performers in a less confrontational manner. They provide reminders instead of warnings and may direct the problem employee to an employee assistance program, when one is available. In short, discipline-without-punishment appears to be more in line with the coaching role of supervisors in TQO than is the progressive discipline approach.

Conclusion

Traditional HR processes (i.e., recruitment, selection, training, performance appraisal, rewards and punishment) were developed for the bureaucratic organization and are not necessarily compatible with the HR needs of TQO. More specifically, job analysis as originally conceived, work samples, technical training, appraisals based on the hierarchy-of-authority notion, merit pay, and progressive discipline may be out of sync with the TQ philosophy. The purpose of this paper is to suggest modifications in HR processes to make them more congruent with the needs of TQO. Quality, empowerment, continuous improvement, teamwork, and other TQ themes should affect the look of HR processes in quality-minded organizations.

I suggested, for instance, that empowerment could play an integral role in the shaping of performance appraisals in TQO. When the purpose of the appraisal changes from an award dispensing mechanism to a feedback mechanism for the sake of continuous improvement, empowering workers to design (i.e., format-construction) and then to implement the redesigned system (i.e., self- and peer ratings) may make sense. Empowerment may lead to improved appraisals but, just as importantly, gain worker acceptance of and commitment to this process. Furthermore, employee perception of procedural justice might be enhanced because of employee involvement. Procedural justice concerns the fairness of the process by which personnel decisions are made within organizations (Folger & Greenberg, 1985). One of Folger and Greenberg's (1985) six rules for attaining procedural justice is the Representativeness Rule which means that the process addresses the concerns of all effected employees. Cooptating TQ workers with appraisal strategies that solicit their input (e.g., format construction) should not only improve the quality of self- and peer ratings but, in the eye of the ratee, should increase the perceived fairness of the appraisal process. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment may be increased when ratees

perceive the appraisal process to be procedurally just (Folger, Konovsky, & Cropanzano, 1992). Another direction for future research should consider how empowerment, in terms of both design and implementation, can affect other HR processes as well.

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SOME LANGUAGE CONCEPTS WE COULD (SHOULD) DO WITHOUT

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ABSTRACT

William Labov and other linguists have noted the insecurity most people have about their language skills. These constant users of language--native and nonnative speakers alike--confess to a lack of knowledge of "grammar," indicate inability to use so-called "correct" or "good" English, and express a desire to "speak better."

This presentation shows the theoretical fallacy inherent in such terms as *correct/incorrect, right/wrong, pure/impure, purity/corruption* when applied to language usage. It delineates the negative consequences of accepting the propriety of these terms and finally proffers and alternative approach to selecting discourse choices and to assessing language usage.

SOME LANGUAGE CONCEPTS WE COULD (SHOULD) DO WITHOUT

English teachers have a problem with the way they are perceived by others. A rather common phenomenon occurs when one discovers the person to whom he is being introduced is an English teacher. Almost without exception two things will happen: first, the person will make a slight, but perceptible, movement back from the teacher; next, he or she will make some comment that shows either linguistic insecurity or discomfort in the presence of an English teacher--or both. For example, the comment may be in essence an apology for his or her language skills: "Oh, I've never been good in English" or "I wish I had learned English better." But more disturbing is a comment of a second type: "Oh, I'd better watch out what I say around you then!" which implies that English teachers are language policemen out to place in shackles anyone whose verb doesn't agree in number with its subject, who dangles a participle, or--Heaven forbid--speaks the most taboo of all words, *AIN'T*!

The position taken in this paper denies a purist attitude toward language--for reasons that will be explained shortly. That is to say, though an English teacher should encourage effective discourse, written and spoken, the teacher should strive to make people comfortable with language and cognizant of their linguistic abilities. To say this is not to subscribe to the dictum "Anything goes." Quite the contrary. The English teachers should strive to get students to speak and write clearly, effectively, efficiently, and admirably with the least amount of linguistic "static" in their communication. To that end the teacher will advise students on language choices, pointing out what works well, what creates problems in communication, and why. The point made here, however, is that people generally use language rather effectively and certainly better than they think they do.

In his study of Lower East Side New York speech, William Labov noted the common phenomenon of linguistic insecurity. He discovered that except for groups who seek separate identity, people felt their use of the English language was lacking and, given the opportunity, always corrected to the language forms of the perceived prestige speakers, i.e., they strove for Standard English. My study in 1969 of the pronunciation of postvocalic /r/ in Austin, Texas, revealed the same phenomenon. The extent to which English teachers themselves have fostered this denigrating attitude in people about their use of language, if any, can only be guessed at. (The nonpurist is completely comfortable with this last sentence that ends with a preposition.)

The call for linguistic purity is not a new one. As far back as 1660 George Fox complained about what he considered an incorrect use of *thou* and *you:*

> Do not they speak false English, false Latin, false Greek ... and false to the other Tongues,... that doth not speak *thou* to *one*, what ever he be, Father, Mother, King, or Judge; is he not a Novice and Unmannerly, and an Ideot and a Fool, what speaks You to one, which is not to be spoken to a singular, but to many? O Vulgar Professors and Teachers, that speak Plural when they should Singular.... Come you Priests and Professors, have you not learned your Accidence? (Qtd. in Fries, *Linguistics* v)

Then a hundred years later, in 1762, Bishop Lowth responded to Swift's statement that the language of British authors "offends against every part of grammar" with the terse remark, "Thus far, I am afraid, the charge is true." This is the same Lowth that foisted upon English speakers the inane rule that a double negative in language negates the positive and therefore is an error in

usage. In so stating, Lowth destroyed a very excellent way to emphasize the a negative, a common practice with Chaucer and Shakespeare. Imagine: if one says "Don't do that," he has obviously given a negative command. If he were allowed to say, "Don't never do that!" he would add emphasis to the prohibition. But if he could say, "Don't never under no circumstances do that again!" the listener would certainly understand he will suffer dire consequence if he repeats his action. This is an example of logic getting in the way of effective language use.

An editorial in the *Detroit Free Press* in 1928 descried the status of language use of the time when it referred to "[a] vast amount of wretched English" heard in the country and recommended "a stricter and more intelligent enforcement of ... rules in our schools." The writer went on to say, "Students should be taught that correct speaking is evidence of culture; and that in order to speak correctly they must master the rules that govern the use of language" (Qtd. in Fries, *Linguistics* vii).

Finally, Edwin Newman in our time showed himself a purist when he began his book *Strictly Speaking* with the words, "Will America be the death of English? I'm glad I asked me that. My well-thought-out mature judgment is that it will. The outlook is dire; it is a later point in time than you think" (1). He proceeded to present examples of poor, ineffective use of the English language that all would agree is to be avoided, but his basic purist attitude toward language is unacceptable.

Why, you may ask is purity of language denied here rather than praised? The answer is simple: Language purity does not exist--it cannot. Denying the validity of what they term "the moral attitude" toward language, Pyles and Algeo state:

> Those who hold this attitude conceive of hypothetically pure languages, set off in a linguistic outer space, spoken by no one, and guarded by the deity who presumably created them. It follows logically from such a notion that a given language may be more or less pure in proportion to its adherence to an ideal language. (12)

No such ideal, "pure" languages exist, of course. When people use the terms *pure, impure, purity, corrupt, incorrect, right* and *wrong* in reference to language, they misspeak themselves, for such terms do not properly belong to language. We may properly speak of *effective* or *ineffective* language, *succinct* or *verbose* expression of ideas, *image-evoking* phrases, or a whole list of similar terms; but when we speak of language *purity*, of keeping the language *pure*, of *correct* or *incorrect* grammar, of *right* or *wrong* language usage, we ascribe to language a nature which it does not possess. Perhaps an analogy will clarify this last statement. In reference to a pen, one may properly refer to it as a *small* pen, a *ball-point* pen, a *light-weight* pen, a *useful, handy, well-functioning, correctly-engineered* pen; but one may not say it is a *moral* or *brilliant* or *happy* pen simply because these latter words ascribe to a pen qualities contrary to its nature. A pen does not possess the characteristics of morality, intelligence or emotion. Similarly, language does not possess the qualities of purity, correctness or rightness.

Consider the following. If a speaker were to say, "I am fixing to go out tonight," is he guilty of "corrupting" the language from a "pure" form? Is the auxiliary "am fixing to" *incorrect* or *wrong* English? In Standard Edited English the designated auxiliary is, of course, "shall" or "will." Moreover, the use of "am fixing to" as a verb auxiliary may sound strange to people in some parts of the country and will definitely signal that the speaker is a Texan or a Southerner, but it is neither *incorrect* nor *wrong*, for it is the term of choice in those sections of the United States and is used there all the time without

notice. What we have here, of course, is a matter of dialect, nothing more. To label the expression "incorrect" would be to say that there is something *inherently* wrong with the phrase, that this auxiliary violates the *nature* of the English language--which it doesn't. Admittedly, formal speech and certain occasions will dictate the use of Standard English "shall" or "will," but the term "am fixing to" definitely is not *wrong* in the sense that it violates the nature of the English language. On the contrary, it is precisely how language works.

In sum, the very nature of language disallows appeals to language purity and the characterization of certain expressions as correct or incorrect, right or wrong.

Up to this point the concepts of purity, correctness, and rightness in reference to language have been addressed from a theoretical point of view to show, hopefully, the impropriety of such labels. But there are also some very practical reasons why they should be avoided. At least five can be noted.

1. First--and this is perhaps the raison d'être of this paper--use of the terms will cause users of the language to needlessly lack confidence in their use of language, fearing lest they violate some holy linguistic Absolute. They will develop a sense of guilt about their language skills and will become apologetic about their spoken or written discourse. Notice that children don't have inhibitions about their language but adults do. Why? Possibly misinstruction by English teachers due to their mis-understanding of the nature of language has effected a distrust of their linguistic competence.

2. A second effect is a natural consequence of the first, viz., the terms stifle healthy growth of a language. Some speakers will feel hesitant to use certain terms or constructions for fear of being "incorrect." The result will be a stagnation of natural language development as new terms and colorful expressions, along with innovative phrases, are restrained. Pyles and Algeo maintain that "the lay commentator may regard as degeneration all that the linguist regards as development" (14). One need only compare British English and American English to illustrate what happens when speakers have a hesitancy to accept new expressions, as the British historically have been reticent to do. American English is much richer because Americans have been more willing to experiment with language and to allow expressions the British reject.

3. A third negative effect of accepting the validity of the terms pure, impure, purity, corrupt, correct, incorrect, right and wrong is that they impede language development in nonnative speakers of a language. Language is learned faster when one has a sense of freedom about what and how ideas are expressed. Nonnative speakers of a language are naturally aware that their use of the phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics (not even to mention stylistic matters) of the English language does not match that of native speakers. If they are made to feel even more apprehensive by a potential judgmental audience, then they will become more reticent to use the language with the skill they already have and thereby to grow in their language proficiency. Teachers of foreign language already know that one learns a language by using it--errors notwithstanding. They know, too, that experimentation with a new language is a key to rapid language acquisition. Noting the importance of self-confidence in learning a new language, Dulay, Burt and Krashen report that research has shown the importance of "lower anxiety levels and a tendency to be outgoing" to successful second language learning.

Second language learners who feel self-confident "have the advantage of not fearing rejection as much as those with high anxiety levels ... they are more able to take in and process what hey hear at any given moment ... [and] are less hampered by the conscious operation of the [internal] monitor because they are not so worried about how they appear" (75). Under such conditions, second language learning is expedited. Thus, an insistence upon language purity and "correctness" has the effect of crushing self-confidence, consequently retarding language learning.

4. Fourth, insistence upon purity, correctness, and rightness misplaces the focus of language use upon form rather than communication. Jesus once responded to criticism of his healing a man on the Sabbath by saying, "The Sabbath was made for man, not man for the Sabbath." Similarly, language was made for man, not man for the benefit of language. Any use of language that results in clear, unfettered, lucid communication is the goal. Charles Fries once wrote, "[L]anguage is a means to an end and that end is specifically to grasp, to possess, to communicate experience. Accordingly, that is good language, good English which, on the one hand, most fully realizes one's own impressions, and, on the other, is most completely adapted to the purposes of any particular communication" (*What Is Good English?* 120). It should go without saying, of course, that social and situational contexts impinge upon the concept of effective communication.

5. A final negative effect of subscribing to the propriety of these terms is that teachers of English are expected to be the guardians of the language--a position as unenviable as it is impossible. English teachers are responsible for facilitating language devel-opment in their students, for instructing them in ways to communicate clearly and effective, for fostering in them a desire to use language to its utmost capabilities, and for apprising them of the status of their language usage, showing consequences attendant thereto. Beyond that they are not responsible, nor should the public expect them to be.

If the terms *pure, impure, purity, correct, incorrect, right,* and *wrong* as commonly applied to language are not acceptable and are words we could--should--do without, as is maintained here, then what is the operative term? Simply stated, appropriateness--appropriateness, as Porter Perrin has pointed out, to the purpose of communication, to the subject and situation, to the listener or reader, and to the speaker or writer (167-173). Let the speaker choose the form of English--the words, structures, and level of formality--that will serve him best in any given situation. Given this truth of the character of language, speakers of a language may wish to conform as best they can to the recognized standard dialect, which they certainly will use when the occasion demands it use, but they assuredly should not feel guilty or apologetic about the language they use. When they understand this basic principle of language, they will feel more comfortable with their language, using it more freely and with greater facility.

THEN instead of wanting to move away from an English teacher at the first opportunity, they just may relax and think of an English teacher as one of the human race--one of them.

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GLOBAL COMPETITION & TQM

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GLOBAL COMPETITION AND TQM

ABSTRACT

It has been stated that national competitiveness may be directly linked to national productivity, and that national productivity in turn depends on a nation's ability to continually innovate. Deming takes the position that productivity must be viewed as a by-product of the pursuit of quality.

In today's ever increasing global competition the emphasis on quality sets the winners and the losers apart. By stressing the pivotal role of continued improvement, TQM produces more efficient, streamlined processes which ideally bring about better quality and higher productivity.

Keywords: Global, Competition, TQM, Productivity

In spite of the difficulties still confronting GATT, and not withstanding the debate about its future, globalization continues to take hold. Despite all the hurdles, ever increasing numbers of consumers around the world avail themselves, either directly or indirectly, to products and services provided by multinational corporations; they also demand better quality at lower price. Thanks to the Japanese, consumers have became more sophisticated, and quality has become affordable. Competitive advantage now depends on the ability to continually innovate which by many is seen as the driver of improved productivity. Knowledge and communications act as the support base for this new "environment."

Starting with the 1970s, especially with Japan and Germany more and more asserting their industrial preeminence as world's leading powers into the 1990s, U.S. found itself in a position of facing up to the fact its corporations cannot dominate the world anymore. Japan in the lead role within the Pacific Basin, and Germany as the locomotive of the European Community have become the challengers. Kenichi Ohmae identifies the following fundamental forces as promoters of this change in the global economic climate: (1) the growth of capital-intensive manufacturing; (2) the accelerated tempo of new technology; and, (3) the concentrated pattern of consumption (Ohmae, 1985: 1). However, changes in the economic landscape also got exacerbated with the collapse of the Soviet Union and by the increased consumerism in countries like China, and India: "... the commercial world has been swelled by ... billions of people stepping out from behind political and economic walls," (Stewart, 1993: 67). Furthermore, in being no longer subject to the threat of the "evil empire" and hence no longer dependant on the protection of the U.S. military might, both the Europeans and the Japanese seem to have found the grounds fertile to affirm their presence as major players in all markets wherein U.S. supremacy had gone unchallenged for decades after World War II.

In the face of this kind of stiff competition, being as good as the best in the world has become the acid-test of survival. If foreign direct investment (FDI) may be used as a proxy for global competition, it can be reported that between 1987 and 1992 the market value of U.S. FDI overseas has gone up by 35% to $776 billion, whereas FDI in the U.S. has almost doubled reaching the $692 billion mark (Stewart, 1993: 67). The consequences of this kind of intense competition are simple: if you cannot meet the new world standard you will not be around for long. In assessing the competition benchmarking has become the tool of choice, and more global corporations are choosing to transcend industry boundaries in search of the best practices to benchmark their operations against. A telling historical example of this long absent, but now critical activity is reported by Garvin (1991: 45):

> In March 1980, Richard W. Anderson. general manager of Hewlett-Packard's Data Systems Division, reported that after testing 300,000 16K RAM chips from three U.S. and three Japanese manufacturers, Hewlett-Packard had discovered wide discrepancies in quality. At incoming inspection, the Japanese chips had a failure rate of zero; the comparable rate for the three U.S. manufacturers was between 11 and 19 failures per 1,000. After 1,000 hours of use, the failure rate of the Japanese chips was between 1 and 2 per 1,000; usable U.S. chips failed up to 27 times per thousand.

Garvin also writes about the differences in attitudes between U.S. and Japanese firms with respect to quality issues. In comparing the two, as a result of a 1981-1982 study conducted with manufacturers of room air conditioners, Garvin (1991:6) reports that in Japan, at four of the six companies he surveyed, first-line supervisors believed product quality -not production at low cost, meeting the production schedule, or improving worker productivity- was management's top manufacturing priority; at the other two, quality ranked a close second; by contrast, at 9 of the 11 U.S. plants, he reports that first-line supervisors indicated that their managers attached far more importance to meeting the production schedule than to any other manufacturing objective.

In this kind of an environment, starting with the early 1980s, total quality management (TQM) in the U.S. begun to work its way to the forefront as the panacea to all

economic problems. As a turning point, some cite broadcast of the CBS documentary titled "If Japan Can... Why Can't We?" on June 24, 1980. Since then, many corporations in their attempts to implement TQM, have focused on their customers; however, unless they can weave quality into all the processes of their organizations most have, and will, surely be disappointed. Grayson's definition of TQM might be helpful to clarify things somewhat-

- Total, meaning all people, all functions, customers, and suppliers,
- Quality, meaning not just products, but processes, reliability, and quality of work life,
- Management, meaning senior management strategy, goal-setting, organizational structure, compensation, and profits (Cook, 1991: 70).

Done the right way, TQM can bring about better quality and higher productivity, and consequently help capture/maintain competitiveness. Quality and productivity both benefit because TQM focuses on doing things right the first time, cutting back on rework, learning to do more with less. Not only in the U.S. but in Europe, and other parts of the world, the rush has been on for years now to profit from TQM. For example, Renault and FIAT both run major TQM programs; the latter, also allows top level executives of its global partners to participate in TQM training. The turnaround in the Peugeot's Talbot factory at Ryton, Coventry, is attributed to TQM (Semple, 1992: 85). These increases in efficiencies, however, also bring about right-sizings, flat-organizations, and the like. It is known that between 1985 and 1993, IBM laid off one third of its work force, and that Volkwagen is trying to bring down it work force by one third, too (Stewart, 1993: 66). The bloodletting continues with reported cutbacks involving corporations like Procter & Gamble, and Kodak many of which have been involved with TQM movement for a number of years. It seems that everywhere, an outcome of the global competition and the TQM combination has become cost cutting by reducing the number of people on the payroll; unfortunately, although the costs go away they go away only temporarily because the work doesn't disappear, the people left behind end up working harder if all the requirements of TQM have not been implemented which in turn creates low morale and this ultimately undermines the employee support for TQM.

It is exactly such "outcomes" as strategic initiatives, corporate restructurings that Grant, Shani, and Krishnan (Grant et al., 1994) caution against; they argue that TQM represents a challenge to conventional management techniques and to the theories that underlie them, and that it cannot be grafted onto existing structures and systems . They offer the following contrast in discussing the conventional economic model of the firm, and the TQM philosophy:

> Corporate restructuring is primarily a top-down process involving vigorous cost cutting through the elimination of underutilized resources... Both TQM and corporate restructuring are responses to the volatile business environment. Increased international competition, market turbulence, and technological change have necessitated lower costs, increased attention to customers, innovation, and faster responses. But these solutions -TQM and corporate restructuring- are quite different because their underlying philosophies have different orientations toward time... corporate restructuring emphasizes static efficiency gains through cost cutting, outsourcing, and divestment of assets. In contrast, TQM emphasizes dynamic performance improvement (Grant et al., 1994: 32).

All this puts the longer term success of of TQM, at least in the U.S., at risk, and requires that we treat TQM as a new paradigm, as opposed to seeing it as another tool at times of crisis, because in warding off the global competition it seems that the benefits of TQM may not be harnessed if the overall cultural requirements of this new mindset are not fully understood and met.

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The Thorny Road of Confucian Religion Mission to the West

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Introduction:

This paper is intended to trace the way to discriminate Confucius and Confucianism in the religious world, and to discover a new way to survive among other religions.

It was Confucius' desire, 2500 years ago, to propagate the Confucian Way, Dao, throughout the world [Analects, 15: 28]. He said that if his doctrine did not prevail, he would go upon a raft and float overseas. [Analects, 5:7] But there were no overseas missions ever established to realize Confucius's idea, until 1990 when Center for Dao-Confucianism, the first Confucian mission was born in America.

East-West Cultural Honey Moon in the 17th and 18th centuries:

There was once a boom of Confucian Humanism during the Enlightenment period in Europe: When the first translations of Confucius' biography and parts of the Confucian Classics were published in Europe, the intellectuals in Europe discovered, to their astonishment, that more than two thousand years ago in China, Confucius had already addressed the same ideas which they thought to be novel and fought the same battles they were doing. The fever of Confucianism spread all over European society, especially among the intellectuals besides the religious circle. [Reichwein: 76-77] . Thus Confucius became the patron saint of eighteenth-century Enlightenment, and only through him could people find a link with China. [Reichwein: 76-78]. According to Voltaire, in the last century the people hardly knew of China, but during the whole first half of the eighteenth century, the Enlightenment knew only the China of Confucius, and Confucius became the one center of their interest. With

Voltaire's Essai sur les moeurs in the year 1760, admiration of China of Confucius reached its zenith. In 1769, Du Halde also said, "China is better known than some provinces of Europe itself." [Reichwein: 79].

The Problem of Christian God and Confucian Heaven:

In the beginning of the 17th century, the first problem the Jesuits in the Chinese court faced was the interpretation of Christian God and Confucian Heaven. The Jesuits preferred the earlier interpretation of Classic Confucianism to that of Neo-Confucianism, because the meaning of Confucius' Heaven was much similar to that of Christian God. Father Matteo Ricci had to persuade his follow Jesuits to exclude the influence of Zhu Xi, the Neo-Confucian Orthodoxy as a materialist. As a result from the time of Ricci on , the Jesuits tried to view the philosophy of Zhu Xi and his School of Principles(*Li-xue*) as atheistic and philosophically materialistic. To avoid the sensitivities of the Orthodox Confucian scholars, the Jesuits in a sophistic way referred to Zhu Xi and his school as "Modern".

At the end of the Ming [1368-1662] there was a reaction against the Neo-Confucian Orthodoxy of Zhu Xi. This reaction took the form of reinterpretation of the Confucian Classics and reappraisal of antiquity, and adopted a simplified and colloquial style entitled Colloquial Commentary on the Four Books by Zhang Ju-zheng against Zhu Xi's Orthodox commentary. Ricci and the compilers of the Confucius Sinarum Philosophus: Chinese philosophy of Confucius labeled Zhu Xi school of *Li-xue* (Study of Principles) as a modern corrupter of ancient Confucianism. The Jesuits instead adopted the traditional Confucian role as transmitters rather than creators [Analects, 7:1] in that they claimed to seek a return to the original and true meaning of the Confucian Classics, which eventually became the Han Learning School. On the other hand Zhu Xi and his followers were considered not as transmitters of Confucius but licentious creators against Confucius' original idea.

The second problem the Jesuits faced was the translation of Meng-zi : Mencius' Works, which was one of the Four Books of Confucian Classics. Father Ricci and some others were reluctant to translate the Meng-zi. There were three

reasons: First, as a text, it was not only the longest but also the most difficult to translate. Second, Mencius' concept of the family value was related to the Catholic priest's vow of celibacy. For Father Ricci, it was not a simple problem to overlook, but an unthinkable contradiction which challenged the Catholic priesthood, since Mencius asserted the lack of descendants as unfilial, because without heirs to continue the family line nobody to serve deceased ancestors [Meng-zi, IV-1: 26]. The Jesuits severely criticized Mencius for introducing this concept which was not an original idea of Confucius. Third, and most importantly, Mencius advocated the goodness of human nature [Meng-zi, VI-1] which inevitably conflicted with essential basis of Christian dogma, the original sin of man. The views of Mencius, therefore, resulted in the denial of the foundation of Christianity. However their attitudes gradually changed when they realized that for the national examinations, the children all over China were required to recite and memorize completely the Four Books from cover to cover. Therefore, the Four Books were covertly translated into Latin and/or French and finally completed including the Meng-zi by Fr. François Noel, which were published in 1711 in Europe. [Mungello: 515-39]

The East-West Cultural Exchange:

1. Leibniz' Discovery of the I Ching and Defense of Zhu Xi. During the Enlightenment in Europe, Western scholars and intellectuals were inspired by Confucius' teachings of humanism. Among many intellectuals, especially Leibniz, German philosopher, theologian, and mathematician was the first one who noticed the I ching. To many scholars, the I Ching, one of the Five Confucian Classics was believed the oldest Chinese and the world's oldest work, and the primary source from which its science and tradition was derived, as Father Bouvet said, "the ancient Chinese who appear to have had long ago a philosophy as sound and as sane, perhaps sounder and more logical than ours today. "[Lach: 101]. Bouvet visualized the trigrams as "universal symbols invented by some extraordinary genius of antiquity in order to present the most abstract principles in all the sciences." Father Bouvet's idea was directly linked with Leibniz. Leibniz analyzed the I Ching's trigrams philosophically and scientifically and

discovered not only another mathematical device of the binary system. but also that the ancient Chinese were a logical and highly intelligent people. His application of the trigrams to binary arithmetic was not an invention , but a rediscovery of Fu Xi's principles. His binary analysis of the trigrams was shown as:

Decimal Scale	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Binary Scale	000	001	010	011	100	101	110	111 [cf ASCII]
Trigrams	☷	☶	☵	☴	☳	☲	☱	☰

Judging Leibniz's binary analysis of the diagrams nobody doubts today's computer language's 0 and 1 can be compared to the I Ching's yin(-) and yang (+) principles. Besides this Leibniz hoped his analysis of the trigrams of the I Ching would awaken in China a deep appreciation for Western science and, ultimately, for Christianity [Lach :103]. That was not all. He also brought the binary system to the attention of Christian missionaries in China, hoping thereby to convince the Chinese emperor that God(unity) had created everything out of the "void: wu-chi."[Collier's Encyclopedia: v.18: 13]. By this favorable interpretation of the I Ching he hoped to change the perception of Zhu Xi and Neo-Confucianism as materialistic among some Chinese scholars in general and Jesuits in particular. Because Zhu Xi's metaphysics was based primarily on the I Ching, it was true that as a result Leibniz' new interpretation, Jesuits' misconception of materialism toward Zhu Xi gradually changed. :

2. Leibniz's Proposal of International Cultural Exchange: Leibniz was not a man to be satisfied with mere day dreams, he was always ambitious to realize and practice his ideas, as he himself once declared : "True Faith and True Hope is not only to speak and not only to think, but to practice--that is, to act as if the truth were so." [Reichwein: 81] The following exemplifies his grand plan for the universal civilization. His suggestions as shown below are not just a national scale but an international scale as well: (1), Establishment of universal language; (2), Reunion of the Churches and his appeal to the Protestant world to join the Catholic in exploring the East; (3), Founding of a scholarly society; (4), Compiling of directory of the intellectual forces(that is, professionals), etc.

Leibniz published the Novissima Sinica in 1697, and in his introduction to it he described the fact that Europe and China, two great civilizations from the two ends of the earth had at that particular epoch met, and fertilized one another by Province's special design. He praised Confucian virtues as saying, " without the gracious intervention of Heaven, such virtue in the Chinese was inexplicable." On the other hand, he lamented the corruption of morals of Europe. Under such urgency and pressure he finally proposed, perhaps throughout the history, the first international cultural exchange between Confucian East and Christian West. He argued that the Western authorities sent many scholars to the Orient to teach the monarch, not only the mathematical arts, but also the essence of our philosophy. But if this process should be continued Leibniz worried that the West may soon become inferior to the Chinese in all branches of knowledge. Therefore, it is desirable that they in turn teach the Westerners those things which are especially in Western interest manner of living. The Western world need missionaries from the Chinese who might teach the Westerners the use and practice of natural religion, just as the West have sent them teachers of revealed theology. [Leibniz: 74-75]. It is lamentable that not only none of the Orientals ever responded to Leibniz' invitation of Confucian missionaries to the West, but also not many people know about the existence of such a historical record.

The Rites Controversy and Its Aftermath.

The Jesuits who followed Ricci's favorable interpretation of Confucianism faced a concrete issue with the Confucian rites. They were eager to promote a favorable impression in Europe of Confucian religious teachings, to further their own end of missionary propagation in China. But should their Christian converts be allowed to continue offering worship to ancestral spirits, and to the spirit of Confucius himself? Most of the Jesuits accepted the Confucian rites in order to influence the Confucian Chinese court. The Dominicans and Franciscans who were jealous of the Jesuits' position in China rejected the Jesuits' practices and brought the issue to the Vatican . This resulted in the Papal decisions against the Confucian rites. On July 11, 1742 Pope Benedict XIV issued a bull which brought an end to the bitterly fought controversy over the question of the Confucian rites.

This in turn resulted in the religious persecutions of the Jesuits Society in China and its suppression. As Ricci was lying on his deathbed he handed on his missionary task to his fellow Jesuit missionaries with the words: I leave you before a door open to great merits, but not without numerous dangers and much labor. [Spalatin : 673]. It was fortunate that Ricci had opened the door for the East-West cultural foundation, thus the beginning had been made , and the foundation had been set. but it was unfortunate that his missionary task met dangers as he had expected. After 1742 for hundred years until the so-called Opium War, first Anglo-Chinese War, 1839-1842 was concluded by the superior fire power of British warships, and followed by humiliating treaties that gave Westerns special privileges in China. The Christian missions gradually flooded China, but nobody talked about the exchange of Confucian mission.

Anti-Confucian Movements:

There had been two powerful sources which were largely responsible for the belittled prestige of Confucianism and also the emasculation of the religious aspect in Confucianism from the end of the 19th century. The first one was the Presbyterian missionary, James Legge, who was perhaps the most powerful and influential and devoted Confucian scholar and its great spokesman and interpreter for the West, turned out to be an aggressive advocate of Christian religion in China. The second was the German sociologist, Max Weber who denied the religiosity of Confucianism and theorized that Confucianism was the main cause to the stagnancy and underdevelopment of the Oriental society .

James Legge [1815-1897] :

Legge, a British missionary was appointed to Chinese mission at Malacca in 1835 and to Chinese mission at Hong Kong in 1840. He became the first professor of Chinese at Oxford University in 1875, and began to publish the Confucian Classics in 1861. James Legge was invited to read, a paper "Confucianism in Relation to Christianity" before the Missionary Conference in Shanghai on May 11th , 1877. The summary was as follows: First, Confucian God is the same as Christian God, but it also includes ancestors and sages; second, Confucianism does not teach or deny the immortality of man; third, it teaches

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moral duties and human relations but not relation with God. As a whole , Confucianism is not perfect but defective, and not antagonistic to Christianity [The China Review, 5: 398-400]. The content of his speech was too mediocre to satisfy his audience. He disappointed the Protestant Missions at the Conference, and his paper was excluded from the conference publication, because he did not openly attack Confucius and Confucianism. He lost his face with the world.

After this incident Legge's attitude had changed drastically, which was expressed well in the following issues of The China Review [7: 363; 8: 59]. He declared : Confucianism pure and simple is in our opinion no religion at all. The essence of Confucianism is an antiquarian adherence to the traditional forms of etiquette.... But who can honestly call this a religion?"

He delivered the Spring Lecture of the Presbyterian Church of England for 1880, and it was published as The Religions of China, Confucianism and Taoism Described and Compared with Christianity. According to him, he had spent more than half his life in making himself acquainted with Confucianism and in the endeavoring to bring over their adherents to the faith of Christ. He studied Confucian classics thoroughly by comparing Confucianism with Christianity, enumerated their similarities and differences and concluded by saying: What I have said about Confucianism shows us the need that is in the great empire of China for Christianity. The true Christian is the highest style of man. And now that the wall of partition that separated China from other nations has been thrown down, I believe it is only their adoption of Christianity that will enable the people to hold their own, and lift them up on the social scale. China is a chosen field, perhaps I might say the chosen field, of the English Presbyterian Church. Legge believed that Confucian society was not a barren waste-land but a rich nursery on which Christian faith would grow. The new faith, once kindled, would spread like a prairie fire. This was Legge's negative formula of Confucianism as a religion, which have been spread throughout the world like a cliché. even among the very direct descendants of Confucius. Many Christians hate the influence of Confucianism as a tabu.

Max Weber [1864-1920]

Max Weber came into the academic world as a great sociologist in the anti-Confucian position of James Legge. Since then, for last hundred years, when scholars talked about sociology, they did nothing but talking about Max Weber in the East and West. His total sociological theory consisted of a modern trinity : the capitalism was the product of the ethical tension between God and sinful man.

When Weber contrasted Puritan and Confucian orientations , he numerated hundreds of Confucian defects. Among them, Weber's unique theme of Confucianism can be expressed : Tension toward the world had never arisen because, as far as known, there had never been an ethical prophecy of a supramundane God who raised ethical demands [The Religion of China: pp. 229-30]. According to him, Confucianism reduced tension with the world to an absolute minimum. In the Confucian ethic completely was absent any tension between ethical demand and human shortcoming. Without this tension,, the individual lacked any "inward"moral struggle comparable to he Puritan's striving for "systematic control of one's own nature which was regarded as wicked and sinful"[p. 244]. As if he knew everything about Confucianism, he used the inclusive term the Confucians whom he did not know much. As far as Confucian religion is concerned, Max Weber was not a well qualified scholar as Professor Thomas A Metzger said: His description of Confucius and Confucianism largely consisted of a caricature of Confucian thought.

Weber's idea on Confucianism became a truth of the twentieth century, and was meshed into influential modern scholars who strongly impressed by his thinking of the Confucian tradition as "worldly and stagnant." It might be an insignificant mistake in the beginning, but end up with truly monumental example of "if one is off by the slightest fraction to begin with, one ends up nowhere near the target," as Metzger said. This mistake was not noticed until Japan displayed the first economic miracle, typical example of the Western capitalism out of the ashes of the Second World War. How can we explain this miracle of capitalism appeared in the center of the Confucian cultural zone where no Weber's trinity, the tension between the Protestant ethic and fallen man exists? It can be explained only through the process of the Confucian renaissance.

However, those words and theories on Confucianism and Confucian societies expressed by James Legge and Max Weber influenced all over the world to discourage Confucianism and encourage Christianity. The influence was well described by William B. Lipphard as the West wind (Christian influence) over the East (Confucian culture) : Today (in the early part of the 1920s) the body of students (young Christian converts) who marched representing the future hope of China is another modern miracle, an opportunity big with possibilities and a glorious accomplishment [Lipphard: 126]. In this way Christian missionaries and Oriental converts stood for Westernization and modernization, and they caused the fall of Confucianism.

Conclusion:

What is the new dimension of religion for the Global Community? First, the new dimension of religion requires only one God, Creator, who is everybody's God. Second, it requires understanding of the different approaches by different peoples toward the One God. Third, it requires to open to every person without the preferences of religion, ideology, race, sex and nationality. Is Confucianism a religion? It is, because it satisfies these three requirements. Confucianism is not a religion of Confucius, but of the Confucians. The Confucians believe that the human9 nature is good. Because God originally created perfect human beings , and He never made evil or sinful human beings.

In February, 1994 for the first time the Confucian Church and Mission was recognized as a non-profit organization by the IRS in America. However, it sounds like a lonely voice in the wilderness surrounded by various religions which are unfriendly. This is the very beginning but not the end of a thorny road. Unless there is a challenge to Confucianism today, a new mountain to climb, its spirit will die tomorrow.

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Developing Strategies for Accelerated Economic Growth and Global Awareness for Caribbean Countries

by

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DEVELOPING STRATEGIES FOR ACCELERATED ECONOMIC GROWTH AND GLOBAL AWARENESS FOR CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES

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The Caribbean countries, like many other developing countries have not been able to achieve accelerated economic growth in recent years. This lack of sustainable economic development may be attributed to a number of factors: a lack of development strategies for accelerated economic growth, their relative small sizes, absence of economies of scale, poor economic base and diverse social problems, poor management, lack of capital, and lack of technological skills and managerial know-how. Furthermore, the traditional macroeconomic solutions for solving modern-day economic problems are no longer suitable for achieving the level of economic growth that are called for today.

Stages of Economic Development:

Traditional economic development stages proposed by W.W. Rostow includes preconditions to takeoff. Implicit in these stages are a rise in investment supported by capital imports; a development of appropriate value-added manufacturing activities; existence of an appropriate political, social, and institutional environment.[1] Typical stages are: agricultural, industrial, post-industrial, and sophisticated technology development phase.

Table 1 shows average annual growth rates for 1980-85. These

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[1] W.W. Rostow. The Stages of Economic Growth (London: Cambridge, 1960)

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represent a sample of the following Caribbean countries: Honduras, Nicaragua, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Jamaica, Guatemala, and Costa Rica.

Table 1

Countries	GDP		Agriculture		Manufacturing		Services	
	1965-80	1980-85	1965-80	1980-85	1965-80	1980-85	1965-80	1980-85
Honduras	4.1	0.6	1.6	2.2	6.0	-2.1	5.4	0.3
Nicaragua	2.6	0.2	3.3	1.4	5.2	0.8	1.4	-0.4
Dominican Republic	7.3	2.2	3.8	3.3	8.9	2.0	7.0	2.0
El Salvador	4.4	-1.8	3.6	-2.9	4.6	-2.1	4.3	-1.3
Jamaica	1.5	0.5	0.5	1.9	0.4	0.8	2.7	1.3
Guatemala	5.9	-1.4	5.1	-0.6	6.5	-2.2	5.7	-0.8
Costa Rica	6.3	0.5	4.2	2.1	..	..	6.0	0.2

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators. The WB divides production into agriculture, industry and services. Within industry are combined mining, manufacturing, construction, electricity, water and gas. Because manufacturing is generally the most dynamic part of the industrial sector, we list only manufacturing.

As can be observed from table 1, the Dominican Republic shows the greatest accelerated continuous growth rate in all sectors for the period under review. Jamaica, on the other hand, has shown a consistent positive performance. Guatemala's GDP grew at rate of 5.9 percent for the period 1965-1980, but from 1980 onwards its GDP was negative. This may be attributable partly to political instability. Costa Rica experienced tremendous growth from 1965 to 1980. Despite the fact that there are no available figures for the manufacturing sector, but extrapolation it can be

concluded that this trend was to continue in the next period at a substantial growth rate.

Transfer of Technology

Export processing is universally valued as a means of employing large numbers of relatively unskilled workers. Its value as a vehicle for the transfer of technology is frequently overlooked. Thus, the importance to an economy of introducing workers for the first time to the rigors of an industrial environment, to notions of punctuality, quality control and deadlines, should not be minimized. For some of these developing nations, local entrepreneurs offshore assembly provides a low-risk method of entry into export activity. With this type of subcontracting arrangements, the customer provide the raw materials, which reduces drastically the export processor's need for working capital. As the industrialist moves along his learning curve, gaining confidence and access to finance, he can begin to import and cut cloth, and eventually to make his own patterns and designs[2] Take the case of Jamaica, that island's garment industry, the Jamaican entrepreneurs have not yet moved very far along their learning curve, since most of them continue to specialize in assembly of clothing only. None of the Jamaican entrepreneurs in assembly of clothing has never entertained the notion of doing any work other than '807' assembly of trousers for the U.S. market. In contrast, Asian-owned companies are able to

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[2] See Larry Willmore's Export Processing in Jamaica, CEPAL Review, No. 52, April 1993.

cut most of the cloth that they use to manufacture the garments that they assembly. Hence, they transfer through the training of employees, more technology than Jamaican companies that operate as '807' subcontractors.

The manufacturing sector of the economy - which depends on the technology and innovation - is not homogeneous. Dualistic concepts like small versus large firms and country sizes, and resource rich and poor may explain differential growth rates. Schumpeter argues that innovative entrepreneur creates and resolves various technological and organizational disequilibria. For accelerated economic development, promotion and protection of such innovative entrepreneurs are vital for the economy. Other factors include: physical infrastructure, education and training, telephone and communication, lack of technology, and lack of resources.

Diversity of Caribbean Countries:

The Caribbean developing nations are a diverse group of countries with different resource endowments, different geographical situations in relation to major markets and different land and sea areas. A number of these countries such as Aruba, Bahamas, Bermuda, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago are classified as high-income countries while others like Haiti are referred to as least developed countries. Some of them do not have significant domestic resources of productive income and are either entirely or extremely dependent on external rental income and entitlement.

A particular feature of some of these countries in the 1980s

has been the development of export-processing industries. The expansion of export-processing has been made possible by special market access, considerable foreign investment and relatively well educated labor forces. The growth of some of them in the 1980s was based on service exports, particularly tourism and financial services, and the export of a few primary commodities.

Tourism is one of the most important service exports specialization of many countries, especially those in the Caribbean. For example, in 1989, for 28 island countries with a population of less than 5 million, tourist earning exceeded 75 percent of total export earning in 5, and were over 30 percent of total export earnings in 15. For some 22 island developing countries for which data is available, tourist earnings were a higher proportion of export earnings in 1989 than in 1980 in 13, and in most of the others tourists earnings remained stable as a proportion of total export earnings during that period. The primary commodity exports that are important to the developing countries include bananas, sugar, coffee, vanilla, spices, nutmeg, fish, wood and few minerals - copper, gold and phosphates which are important, however, to only a very few of them.

A number of these nations have relatively low levels of infant mortality, relatively high life expectancy, and relatively low levels of illiteracy. The incidence of poverty is high and pervasive in those nations which are the least developed category. Even in higher income countries, a high incidence of poverty still persists, particularly in rural areas. On the other hand, lack of

productive employment opportunities is a general problem. There is also considerable social tension in some developing nations in which there is pronounced ethnic diversity - a legacy of the importation of labor from various parts of the world to work on plantations in the colonial period. The growing need for effective human resources for development, places considerable strain on government budgets. Government institutional capabilities are overburdened with the task of satisfying immediate human resource development needs through nationwide delivery systems for education, health care and employment security, and with institutional human resource development needs for designing, managing, administering and updating these systems as demands change.

Major Constraints of CBI Sustainable Development

Caribbean nations have a number of common characteristics. Many of them are constrained by a paucity of natural resources. Because some islands are very small in area, this can lead to very high population densities and related environmental stress. The economies of these islands are very open, allowing them preferential market access to many developed market economies. This, in turn, allows them to avail themselves of economies of scale, the realization of which requires specialization in a very narrow range of products which tends to heightens their vulnerability to external demand shocks. Also, such economies are extremely vulnerable to increases in international prices on account of their high import-dependence. The sustainability of growth is also being significantly affected by changes in the

global economy. Recent trends in the global economy - including globalization of production, the emergence of new economic spaces (defined by regional trading arrangements), new forms of competition based on flexible specialization, organizational and technical innovations in international shipping, and increasing importance of micro-electronics and telecommunications infrastructures - all poses new challenges to these nations. New forms of competition, based on customized products rather than prices, point towards the viability of niche-filling export activities in the small developing nations. Small island developing states are increasingly nervous about some looming threats in the development in the international situation, vis a vis, the danger of erosion of trade preferences and reduction in aid which are likely to exacerbate their economic and environmental pressures.

Although most of these islands have an abundance of unskilled labor, there is definitely a shortage of skilled labors. Take the island of Jamaica, as an example, the shortage of skilled labor is quite profound in the area of management. Even Jamaican-owned companies have to resort to expatriate managers. Nationals of the United States manage each of the three large Jamaican-owned factories in Montego Bay. Jamaican owners, for the most part, procure contracts and handle the finances. It should be noted that expatriates are expensive compared to local managers, and an abundance of expatriates in Jamaican factories is reflective of the scarcity of trained managers on the island.

Special Vulnerabilities of Some Small CBI States

The very small Caribbean developing countries are acutely vulnerable to an array of exogenous factors which pose severe constraints on their sustainable development. A vulnerable economy may be characterized as one that: 1) is subject to frequent shocks which are unpredictable and not controllable at the national level; and 2) has low resilience, in the sense that it has little internal capacity to absorb damages caused by shocks and continued normal economic life. From a long-term perspective, a vulnerable economy is one in which development momentum, and thus the well-being of the population, cannot be sustained, either because the economy cannot easily adapt to changing costs and prices in the international markets or because the environmental resources on which activities are easily degraded, or because of both reasons.

Forward and Backward Linkages.

Some of these islands governments are reluctant to allow free zone companies to compete with protected domestic firms. It should be noted that free zones have almost no forward linkages with the rest of the economy. To cite an example, in Jamaica free zone legislation stipulates the export of goods from the free zones to the Jamaican customs territory upon payment of duty and with the consent of the Ministry of Industry, but only one such consent has been granted to only one company, a South Korean Manufacturer of leather shoes that sells 10% of its output on the local Jamaican market (Willmore). This type of regulated environment has resulted in a segmentation of the Jamaican garment industry.

Jamaican export processing plants have failed to develop backward linkages for the same reason that they have not succeeded in developing forward linkages, due largely to poor government

policy. It has been suggested that registration in Jamaica is a "bewildering bureaucratic process" replete with multiple forms and considerable administrative discretion. As a result, export processing companies generally find domestic products to be uncompetitive with imports in both price and quality.

Choices for Sustainable Development

Some of the basic constraints on the sustainable development of small Caribbean countries are: lack of land based and proven marine resources; the susceptibility of natural disasters; the fragility of ecosystems; the depletion of non-renewable resources, in some cases an acute problem of fresh water supplies; limited resources assessment capabilities; high costs of infrastructure and public service provision associated with a lack of economies of scale; high internal transport costs; a deteriorating inter-island transport service in island states which are archipelagoes; poor accessibility to market and sources of supply; a demographic structure with a large proportion of young and old people because of emigration; shortage of skilled personnel, both entrepreneurial and administrative on account of emigration and the small available pool of talent; high dependence on foreign capital but little attractiveness for foreign investment; and small internal markets.

Conclusion

The prospects for sustainable accelerated development and growth in the CBI developing countries depend on actions to overcome, and where possible to remove, key constraints. Some of the constraints are binding, but not all. At the national level, it is possible that through careful planning to develop adequate

human resources capability to respond flexibly and creatively to cope with economic and environmental shocks and challenges. In medium size developing states such as Jamaica, it is imperative that the training of more engineers and technicians be top priority. On the other hand, capability is vital for strengthening the resilience of CBI nations. But, this development will call for national efforts and regional and sub-regional cooperation. In order to promote sustainable development these nations have to insulate their economies and ecosystems from exogenous forces.

The nature of the CBI countries is such that trade in goods and services, international capital flows and international migration will continue to play a significant role in their patterns of development. Sustainable development may be best promoted through outward-oriented, carefully devised and flexible strategy that seeks high-value niches in export markets.

Some of the specific sustainable development options available to these nations are: export of services, such as tourism, offshore financial activities and electronic data entry and flexible specialization as a method of organizing export production of light manufacturers which offers the potential to increase their international competitiveness and responsiveness to external economic changes. Flexible specialization as an approach to organizing production is to compete on the basic of product rather than price by exploiting particular niches in markets for a variety of small-scale, but high value-added products of light manufacturing industries.

Finally, all of the CBI countries are endowed with

agricultural potential, agriculture can still offer an important source of sustainable growth given adequate intensification, diversification and well-managed use of modern inputs. It is imperative, however, that these be coupled with light manufacturing export-led industries in order to compete in the global economy.

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THE REINVENTION OF U.S. PUBLIC PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION:

INTERNATIONAL IMPLICATIONS AND IMPACTS

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In 1948 Wallace S. Sayre wrote what is now a classic article entitled "The Triumph of Techniques over Purpose." In this article Sayre noted that the source of the most distinctive public personnel practices was the goal of eliminating party patronage from the management of the civil service. He further noted that this definition of purpose has been the most enduring, the most widely understood and embraced, and consequently, the most influential article of faith in the growth of the profession of public personnel administration in the United States. From this premise the basic structure of civil service administration has been derived: central personnel agencies, bipartisan commissions, quantitative techniques, the "rule of three", and other devices to neutralize and divert patronage pressures (Sayre, 1948).

Until very recently this "article of faith" described by Sayre has remained as a "guiding light" for public personnel administrators in the United States. The purpose of this paper is to review the basics of civil service systems; to describe the "reinvention" of public personnel systems in the United States; and to speculate about some of the possible implications or impacts for civil service systems in other countries.

Civil Service Systems - American Style

Herbert Kaufman has described American public personnel administration as a succession of shifts among three values: **representativeness, politically neutral competence,** and **executive leadership** (Kaufman, 1969). Kaufman notes that one of these values is never displaced totally by another, and changes in the three values reflect a constant tension that exists in American society. Civil service systems, as Sayre noted, are in essence a reaction to the practice of patronage. Civil service systems attempt to bring to the forefront the value of politically neutral competence while at the same time trying to retain the value of representativeness, but not through the use of patronage per se. The value of representativeness also involves the guarantee of equal treatment to all applicants for public employment and among all public employees. This goal has won an increasing emphasis from public personnel specialists. The contribution of this goal to personnel methodology has been substantial. Its main effect has been to move American public personnel

administration, in the words of Gordon Clapp, "into the cold objective atmosphere of tests, scores, weighted indices, and split-digit rankings" so completely that "these technical trappings have become the symbols of the merit system" (Clapp, 1941).

As Hugh Heclo (1977) has pointed out, bureaucracies are, in a sense, "natural" phenomenon in modern society; they have occurred and grown without anyone having to decide or consciously plan that they should do so. The civil service, however, has been a kind of social invention. Unlike the fact of bureaucracy, the design of the civil service was normative, a statement of what should be.
Throughout its history the civil service idea has rested on three basic principles:

1. **That the selection of subordinate gov't officials should be based on merit - the ability to perform the work rather than any form of personal or political favoritism.**

2. **That since jobs are to be filled by weighing the merits of applicants, those hired should have tenure regardless of political changes at the top of organizations.**

3. **That the price of job security should be a willing responsiveness to the legitimate political leaders of the day.**

It should be pointed out that nothing in the basic idea of civil service suggested that the civil service was created primarily for the sake of providing job security to public employees. Rather, security of tenure was a by-product of assuring the competence of government personnel by an open, competitive examination of merits in hiring. It has also long been noted that "The battle against the spoilsman has made civil service reformers more intent on competence before appointments than upon performance after appointments" (Bruere, 1913).

In 1978 Congress passed the Civil Service Reform Act, which altered the federal personnel system. The law identified nine principles of merit:

1. **Recruitment should be from qualified individuals from appropriate sources in an endeavor to achieve a work force from all segments of society, and selection and advancement should be determined solely on the basis of relative ability, knowledge, and skills, after fair and open competition which assures that all receive equal opportunity.**

2. **All employees and applicants for employment should receive fair and equitable treatment in all aspects of personnel management without regard to political affiliation, race, color, religion, national origin, sex, marital status, age, or handicapping condition, and with proper regard for their privacy and**

constitutional rights.

3. Equal pay should be provided for work of equal value, with appropriate consideration of both national and local rates paid by employers in the private sector, and appropriate incentives and recognition should be provided for excellence in performance.

4. All employees should maintain high standards of integrity, conduct, and concern for the public interest.

5. The Federal work force should be used efficiently and effectively.

6. Employees should be retained on the basis of the adequacy of their performance, inadequate performance should be corrected, and employees should be separated who cannot or will not improve their performance to meet required standards.

7. Employees should be provided effective education and training in cases in which such an education and training would result in better organizational and individual performance.

8. Employees should be-

   A. Protected against arbitrary action, personal favoritism, or coercion for partisan political purposes, and

   B. Prohibited from using their official authority or influence for the purpose of interfering with or affecting the result of an election or a nomination for election.

9. Employees should be protected against reprisal for the lawful disclosure of information which the employees reasonably believe evidences-

   A. A violation of any law, rule, or regulation, or

   B. Mismanagement, a gross waste of funds, an abuse of authority, or a substantial and specific danger to public health or safety.

What becomes obvious is that merit principles impinge on all aspects of personnel administration. Personnel actions are decisions affecting individuals. These decisions include, for example: determining the score of an employment examination, selecting someone for a job, deciding who will attend a training program, and removing an incompetent employee.Another early stream of influence in American public personnel administration, identified by Sayre was the scientific management movement. Sayre (1948) noted that scientific management has exerted a powerful attraction for personnel administrators. The precise, quantitative techniques of the engineer appeared to be

plausible and attractive methods for the "scientific" personnel manager. Sayre noted that job classification, factor analysis, numerical performance reviews, and other personnel methods acquired a new and impressive endorsement in scientific management. Personnel systems could lay claim to the combined virtues of merit, equality in competition, and scientific management.

Personnel administration from Sayre's day to the present, has tended to be characterized more by procedure, rule, and technique than by purpose or result. In the public field especially quantitative devices have overshadowed qualitative. Standardization and uniformity have been enshrined as major virtues. Universal (and therefore arbitrary) methods have been preferred over experimentation and variety. From the perspective of the clientele (the public, the managers, and the employees) these traits connote rigidity and bureaucracy run rampant. Among personnel people there has been a sense of frustration and a loss of satisfying participation in the real work of the organization. E.S. Savas and Sigmund G. Ginsburg (1973) has written that vast changes in government and society have taken place in the last 50 years, and the rules and regulations appropriate for 1883 have now become rigid and regressive. They noted that citizens did not see a merit system in their daily lifes. The low productivity of public employees and the malfunctioning of governmental bureaucracies had become apparent to an increasing number of frustrated and indignant taxpayers. The problem shows up all over the United States in the form of uncivil servants going through pre-programmed motions while awaiting their pensions. Too often the result is mindless bureaucracies that appear to function for the convenience of their staffs rather than the public whom they are supposed to serve. Savas and Ginsburg believed that it is the system itself, not the politicians or public employees, that is basically at fault.

It should also be pointed out that over the years in many United States public jurisdictions the power, in effect, to remove an employee was taken away from the appointing authority (management) and given to the personnel agency, usually a civil service commission. This change radically altered the function of the civil service commissions. No longer did they serve simply to ensure that political considerations did not prevail in public employment; they had gained the lawful right to review all the personnel actions of management. In Kaufman's conceptual model this was the ascendancy of the politically neutral competence value over that of executive leadership.

Today, United States merit systems are facing challenges from two fronts. On the one hand, many formal written tests are seen as discriminatory against minorities, whose average scores are often lower than those of nonminority applicants. This has led some to question whether the goals of merit and equity, or cultural diversity, are compatible.

On the other hand, observers see the civil service, particularly at the federal level, in crisis because it is increasingly unable to hire the "best and brightest." This problem has several causes, including the image of the civil service and compensation issues. But critics also fault the hiring process as slow, confusing, and unresponsive to management needs.

Shafritz (1975), like many other observers, believes the system has become perverted. He

notes there are two reasons for perversion of merit systems:

* Traditional political ends (patronage)

* To hire "highly qualified" people - since merit system "red tape" and procedures get in the way - managers do "end runs" and "game" the system.

Are there really any merit systems out there? Shafritz notes that judging a merit system by its legal mandates is much like counting the virgins at a high school graduation. In both cases the kind of research necessary to ascertain the truth is exceedingly difficult methodologically and likely to be embarrassing to the subjects under scrutiny (Shafritz, 1975, P.33).

REINVENTING PUBLIC PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION IN THE UNITED STATES

David Osborne and Ted Gaebler (1992) in their influential book: Reinventing Government note that "Like the steam engine, civil service was a valuable breakthrough in its day. But that day has long since passed. We obviously need some protection against patronage hiring and firing. But it is time to listen to our public entrepreneurs and replace a civil service system designed for the nineteenth century with a personnel system designed for the twenty-first" (P. 130).

As also noted by Osborne and Gaebler certain changes are now taking place in American public personnel administration that could be considered as a part of the process of reinvention. Some of the attributes of reinvented public personnel administration noted by these authors include the following:

* Hiring systems that allow managers to hire the most qualified people (within legal and affirmative action guidelines).
  * Aggressive recruitment of the best people.

* Streamlining of the appeals process for employees who are fired.

* Broad classification and pay bands.

* Market-based salaries.

* Performance-based pay.

* Promotion and layoffs by performance rather than by seniority (P. 129).

There has been some opposition, at least in part, to the reinvention movement. For example, opponents of the relaxation or outright elimination of testing methods argue that personnel decisions would be less objective and more subjective in the absence of examinations. James E Leidlein (1993), argues that this need not be negative nor undesirable. In fact, he says, the process should be more subjective. Public managers should have no less discretionary latitude in personnel matters than their private sector counterparts. Successful managers in private industry are measured on their ability to hire, train, develop, promote, and manage high-quality people. No less should be expected of public managers.

The argument is made that the hiring supervisor should be included on the panel to interview job candidates. Leidlein notes that this is not only important but critical. Public managers must assume responsibility for their hiring and promotion successes and failures and cannot do so if they are eliminated from the process, as is common in most civil service systems. The training of interviewers is very important and structured interviews and perhaps performance simulation activities can replace the old reliance on testing (P. 392).

Leidlein concludes by stating that as the Rutan decision by the U.S. Supreme Court should alleviate fears of a return to a patronage system. Therefore, public employers should discard antiquated and over-bureaucratized civil service systems that have little relevance to seeking, retaining and promoting quality public employees. I would add that it is important that Personnel departments continue to play an important role in any revised civil service personnel system. They must have an overview function to guard against uneven management practices across department lines and to monitor affirmative action goals (many public organizations have implemented them to ensure a diverse workforce of quality people).

At the Federal level in the United States Vice President Al Gore issued the Report of the National Performance Review in September of 1993 which involved the "reinvention" of the federal government. The report notes that the U.S. federal personnel system has been evolving for more than 100 years - ever since the assassination of President James A. Garfield by a disappointed job seeker. Year after year the personnel rules have piled up. The U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board reports there are now 850 pages of federal personnel law - augmented by 1,300 pages of OPM regulations on how to implement those laws and another 10,000 pages of guidelines from the Federal Personnel Manual.

As the NPR Report notes on one topic alone - how to complete a standard form for a notice of a personnel action - the Federal Personnel Manual contains 900 pages of instructions. The full stack of personnel laws, regulations, directives, case law and departmental guidance that the Agriculture Department uses weighs 1,088 pounds.

Vice President Gore notes that after surveying federal managers, supervisors and personnel officers in a number of agencies the conclusion was that federal personnel rules are too complex, too prescriptive, and often counterproductive. Does the federal personnel

system work? In a word - No.

The recommendations of the NPR involving federal personnel policies include the following:

* The Office of Personnel Management will deregulate personnel policy by phasing out the 10,000 page Federal Personnel Manual and all agency implementing directives.

* Give all departments and agencies authority to conduct their own recruiting and examining for all positions, and abolish all central registers and standard application forms.

* Dramatically simplify the current classification system to give agencies greater flexibility in how they classify and pay their employees.

* Agencies should be allowed to design their own performance management and reward systems, with the objective of improving the performance of individuals and organizations.

* Reduce by half the time required to terminate federal managers and employees for cause and improve the system for dealing with poor performers (P. 21-25).

In a broader context, what the reinventing government paradigm is trying to create is a way for the public, through its elected officials, to keep a grip on government agencies without stifling agency creativity. The new paradigm substitutes "performance measures" for most rules and regulations. Traditionally governments have focused on "inputs" rather than "outcomes."
The new emphasis on outcome or performance measures is supposed to help bureaucrats and elected officials get a handle on their goals and effectiveness, without "micromanagement" from Congress, state legislatures, and city councils.

In civil service systems public managers have typically had very little discretion over the "how" of accomplishing their missions.
That is they have had to follow complex rules concerning the methods for accomplishing any given task, such as hiring or recruiting. Accountability in civil service systems has focused primarily on the "how" or on the "inputs" as noted above. What the reinventing government paradigm promises is that managers will have more discretion in determining how to staff their agencies, but more accountability for agency outcomes and results.

In 1993 William F. Winter, Chairman of the National Commission on the State and Local Public Service issued the Commission's findings in a report entitled: Hard Truths/Tough Choices: An Agenda for State and Local Reform. The publication of this report gave the

reinvention movement a more specific agenda than the broader prescriptions offered by Osborne and Gaebler in their book. The Winter Commission report points reformers in a certain direction, but provides no road map. It doesn't provide any "silver bullets" according to Chairman Winter.

The Commission report notes that a number of state and local jurisdictions have introduced needed flexibility into their personnel systems. There were six areas seen as central to reform in personnel systems:

* Improving active recruiting, linked to human resource planning.
* Exploring alternatives to written tests for some occupations.
* Moving away from the rule of three for selection.
* Increasing opportunities for lateral entry.
* Limiting veterans preference.
* Consolidating job titles.

According to the Report, the lesson is that civil service systems can be reformed rather than simply tolerating them, gaming them, or trying to circumvent them. Roger Liwer (1994), Deputy Commissioner of Support Operations for New York City's Sanitation Department notes that at the bottom line such reforms as noted above require executive leadership willing to empower the front line. In discussing his remarkable accomplishments in turning around the sanitation equipment maintenance shop in New York City he states "If I were to leave tomorrow and some autocrat were to come in, this would die in a day" (P. 59).

The Winter Commission recommends that governments remove the barriers to lean, responsive government. In the area of personnel, public officials are moving to de-layer bureaucracy and reduce the number of classifications in government as first steps toward reform.

THE INTERNATIONAL PICTURE

The reinvention of public personnel administration in the United States should not be viewed as an abandonment of civil service systems. It is rather an attempt to "fix" or streamline these systems so they are more efficient and responsive. In terms of Herbert Kaufman's conceptual model, the reinvention of public personnel administration can be seen as an assertion or reassertion of the value of Executive Leadership while at the same time deemphasizing, to a very limited extent, the value of Politically Neutral Competence.

Many of the reinvention reforms are aimed directly at the issue of managerial discretion. Many of these reforms are designed to give agency managers more discretion in the "how" of work performance, which includes the "how" of staffing the work. Accountability, a critical issue in public organizations, is placed by the reinvention reformers on agency outcomes and performance measures where it belongs.

It seems that the reinvention reforms can work in many American public jurisdictions where managers are willing and able to accept the burdens and responsibilities associated with increased discretion over how work is accomplished. Will these types of reforms work for other countries?

In examining international impacts of the reinventing government movement as it pertains to public personnel administration or civil service systems the first point to be made is that these reforms or proposed reforms are so new in the United States that very little has been written on their dissemination or impact on other governments' civil service systems around the globe. This unfortunately or fortunately leaves us in a position of discussing their potential impacts rather than their actual impacts.

Going out on a limb, but not too far out, the argument is made here that the reinvention movement recommendations as they pertain to public personnel administration will have very little immediate impact on civil service systems in other countries.
Let's use Kaufman's conceptual model once again to frame this argument recognizing that his model was developed to describe the environment of United States public personnel administration. As discussed earlier, Kaufman views the history of administrative machinery in American government's as a succession of shifts among the three values of: representativeness (which led to the spoils system), politically neutral competence (a reaction or as some would believe, an overreaction, to the spoils system), and executive leadership (which is in ascendancy if reinventing government reformers succeed). Kaufman notes that one of these values is never displaced totally by another, and changes in the three values reflect a constant tension that exists in United States society.

The key point here is that in examining the public personnel systems in place in other countries one finds, not surprisingly, that the influences of history, of culture, of recent political events, and many other factors in these countries combine to lead to a different emphasis on the values of representativeness, politically neutral competence, and executive leadership then are found in the United States at this specific point in time. In order for the reinventing government movement to exert maximum influence on public personnel administration it seems that executive leadership must be an ascending value as it is in the United States in reaction to problems with red-tape bound civil service systems. Recommendations for decentralization of decision- making and the de-layering of bureaucracy should place more discretion in the hands of individual agency managers and executives and give more weight to the value of executive leadership.

PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF CHINA

One example of civil service reform where some recent literature is available involves the People's Republic of China. The Chinese public personnel system has been strongly influenced since the 1950's by the socialist model of the centrally planned economy and by Chinese feudalism. Weiqiang Li (1990) noted that the socialist model, which was copied from the Soviet Union, defined the personnel system's structure while Chinese feudalism influenced the ways in which it operated. Li further notes that this personnel system was characterized by over-centralization, organizational overlap, closed structure, and equalitarianism in compensation (P. 163).

Reform of the Chinese public personnel system began in the 1980's. According to Li, reform in the Chinese personnel system has tended to abandon the Soviet personnel model and to turn toward Western personnel concepts and practices. Li explains that the use of western personnel concepts is limited to the extent that the Communist Party's political foundation cannot be disrupted. political loyalty to the Communist Party was still emphasized as the first qualification for civil service positions. According to Li this emphasis on loyalty to the Communist Party also explains why organizational overlap between the Party organization department and the state personnel department will continue to exist (P. 172).

Li also points out that due to political turmoil, the Chinese public personnel system has never been rationalized. He states that, "effective job designs, recruitment procedures, performance evaluations, promotion and demotion criteria, regular salary raises, and regulations regarding retirement have never existed. Personnel decisions are arbitrarily made by higher authorities on the case basis. Consequently, flaws such as leaders' life tenure, bribes, nepotisms, position heredity, and obsequiousness are common phenomena" (P. 170). Rationalizing the public personnel system in China is now considered a high priority.

The government Ministry of Light Industry embarked upon a reform agenda in 1988 and 1989. According to J. Oliver Williams (1993), the initial reform agenda of the Ministry was focused on open recruitment, merit employment, and efforts to streamline the agency by reducing administrative/supervisory positions by one third (P. 1036). Also according to Williams, the goal of the Light Industry ministry is "to develop a personnel system according to widely accepted criteria used by civil service systems abroad. It includes a classification of positions, open recruitment and examination, pay scale revisions, training and a codification of policies and decrees relating to employment" (P. 1041).

Based on these accounts of civil service reform in the People's Republic of China and once again using Kaufman's conceptual model, it would appear that China is entering a period in which politically neutral competence is in ascendancy. In terms of the reinventing government movement and its influence in the development of China's public personnel system, it would seem that this is not the time for this movement's reform agenda to exert maximum influence, since the reinventing government reforms are

predicated on the ascendancy of the value of executive leadership.

CONCLUSION

Civil service rules will not disappear in the United States, the court systems will see to that. Public managers have found over the years, in my opinion, that the easy way (perhaps not the right way, but the easy way) to deal with employee litigation and court review of personnel matters is to shed themselves of discretion in personnel matters. It is perceived as easier, that is more defensible, to create a set of rules and follow them exactly rather then to use judgement and discretion in personnel matters. The fact is that it takes intestinal fortitude (guts) and executive leadership to maintain an environment in which reinvented public personnel administration can thrive and prosper.

As noted earlier, it seems that the reinventing government movement as it involves public personnel administration will have little immediate impact internationally, but that is not to say that its influence will not be felt abroad, I don't have exact numbers but there are many students from many countries currently studying public administration in United States colleges and universities where the concepts and issues involved with the reinventing government paradigm are being discussed and debated. There are of course other potential avenues for the global dissemination of the concepts and ideas of reinvention, including scholar exchanges, international conferences, and a wide-range of internationally available publications and articles dealing with the topic. These avenues of dissemination should ensure that ongoing reforms in the United States will be watched with interest in other countries.

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FUNCTIONS OF FORMS OF ADDRESS IN INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

Following one of its definitions, intercultural communication is a symbolical verbal or non-verbal process between at least two interlocutors coming from different cultural backgrounds who, consequently, do not always share the same mother tongue and who negotiate and attribute meaning to their utterances during their interaction. This definition seems to be the most exhaustive as it embraces all socio-cultural and psychological aspects of the communicative process drawing thus our attention to the possible areas of misunderstandings and conflicts.

Our assumptions, expectations, stereotypes and pre-conceptions about other speakers, their norms of behaviour, attitudes, values, beliefs and communicative techniques are inherent underlying factors of the way we understand and interpret messages. Our own world-view constitutes a frame of reference against which all pieces of information sent to us are decoded. It is true that nearly all cultural groups share the same values (cultural universalism), but it has also been proved that various societies rank these values differently and use dissimilar repertoires of verbal and non-verbal means of communication for their expression. Despite cultural universalism world view is always culture

specific and differs from one speaker to another and from one speech and culture community to another. Thus, an automatic transfer of meaning is impossible between non-related cultures.

As Gudykunst (1992) rightly observes anxiety (anxiety management theory) and uncertainty (uncertainty management theory) mark the intercultural communicative process. Speakers feel anxious if they fail to create favorable relationships with their partners because their ego is threatened then. If they are not able to be successful in sending information they suffer from uncertainty. These two levels, relational and cognitive, on which communication takes place are always present. Interlocutors encode, send and decode their messages but to be sure that the sent and received meaning is the same and to reduce the anxiety and uncertainty level they have to negotiate it considering many non-linguistic factors.

Successful communication is very difficult to achieve, the more so if the speakers share neither identical cultural identities nor language. Thus, the most important thing for them to do is to try to fill the relational and cognitive gap looking for the needed pieces of information in both verbal and non-verbal repertoires of means of communication. Address patterns are a very rich source of information about speakers, setting, goals and objectives of the encounters, etc. because they are carriers of many socio-psychological, cultural or even political factors rooted in a given speech community. They belong to very important communicative strategies as they fulfill all functions of language. Their multifunctional character derives from the very nature of language which

> "is not merely a means of interpersonal communication and influence. It is not merely a carrier of content whether latent or manifest. Language itself is a content, a

> referent for loyalties and animosities, an indicator of social and personal relationships, a marker of situations and topics as well as social goals and the large-scale value-laden areas of interactions that typify every speech community."
>
> (Ghosh 1972:236)

The model of language functions proposed by Halliday (1978:19) presents seven functions which are complementary and closely interrelated. They are the following: phatic, regulatory, interactional, personal, heuristic, imaginative and informative. They also apply to forms of address, which acting on the two communicative levels, relational and cognitive, perform all of them.

Performing the instrumental, phatic or contact function forms of address are used as attention getters to catch the interlocutor's attention and communicate him our readiness to get engaged in a conversation with him. Repeated in the course of conversation they create, reinforce and check the contact between speakers. They also serve to regulate the tension in the course of the interaction because they serve as a reflexive framework, a moment of rest from which to start a new move. Thus, they fulfill the interactional function, as well. It is very difficult to specify when one function ends and another starts. The regulatory and personal functions exemplify this interrelation. The difference is that while performing the personal function forms of address transmit a self-image of the message sender, and when the regulatory function is activated, the receiver is focused on and we get to know how the speaker perceives him. When used in these two functions forms of address bring information about personnel (age, gender, profession, status both social and economic, social role, role in this very encounter, power- and status-relation with the

speaker, sense of group affiliation or separation), context (formal, half-formal, informal) and goals. Generally speaking, the older the person and the higher his/her status the more respectful the form of address required. Women are also treated with more deference, which is reflected by the choice of the most appropriate form of address. The same rule applies to context and goal. The more formal the setting the more courteous the form of address and vice versa; and the more important the objective the more considerate, polite or even imploring the address pattern (a widespread strategy consists in heightening the title of the person in power, e.g. a vice-president becomes a president, etc.). As it follows from the above, forms of address are a very powerful tool to influence, control and modify the behaviours of others. Depending on the occasion individuals themselves select their particular identity which best suits their own and their interlocutor's expectations, the script of the encounter defined by both its context and its goal. Regulatory function is realized to achieve this continual modification, adjustment and readjustment of the course of the interaction. The heuristic and imaginative functions help to put into effect the regulatory function. The first serves to find out if the speaker has located and perceived his/her partner so as to meet the expectations of the latter. The check-up ability of forms of address is crucial so as not to violate the socio-cultural rules of communication and, consequently, not to offend the receiver. The imaginative or expressive function shows the speaker's feeling and emotions. The informative function is superimposed and global in relation to all others. The conclusion which can be drawn from the above discussion is the best paraphrased by Gumperz (1979:212) who says that "we

select the form of address on the basis of what we know about the interlocutor and what the behavioural norms allow". Another important observation to bear in mind is that any violation of the usage of forms of address has much more serious consequences for the whole process of communication than any other language mistake.

Terms of address are realized by such grammatical categories as nouns - nominal forms of address, pronouns - pronominal forms of address, adverbs - attributive form of address. Morpho-grammatical properties of each language decide which parts of speech can be put together to create compound terms of address. As these rules are different for different languages the repertoires of address patterns vary from language to language. Let us illustrate this statement with some examples. Explicit half-formal terms of address in Polish (pani Marysia) or Italian (Signorina Anna) have only implicit counterparts in French (Mariette ..... vous) and do not exist, at all, in English. Polish and Italian syntactic rules allow, without exceptions, for combination into long address clusters various professional, academic, rank and neutral titles (e.g. panie inzynierze, panie magistrze, panie kapitanie, panie kierowco, signor architetto) while English and French have a very restricted repertoire of such address patterns, nearly idioms nowadays, where the neutral title Mr.,Mrs.,Miss./M.,Mme.,Mlle can appear together with another title (e.g. Mr. Chairman, Mr. President, Mr. Speaker, M. le President, Mme. la Deputee). Repertoires of pronominal forms of address also show significant differences. English, as a result of its simplification and neutralization has the pronominal address pattern reduced to only one pronominal form "you". It stands for both nominal and pronominal terms of address in other languages, which have distinct

forms to name one or more than one individual (e.g."tu", "vous", "madame", "monsieur", "mademoiselle" and the collective title "mesdames et messieurs" in French; "tu", "lei", "voi", "signore", "signora", "signorina" and their plural counterparts in Italian; and "ty", "wy", "pan", "pani" together with their corresponding terms in plural and the collective title "panstwo" in Polish).

As it follows from our discussion above, there is no one to one correspondence among forms of address in various languages. Socio-cultural norms of their application and distribution in interactions are not identical, which increases the probability of their wrong usage. It turns out that the most controversial and troublesome are the situations which, reflecting the same type of social relations, demand different linguistic behaviour. For the purpose of our study we have analyzed five domains of social interactions representing a different level of formality. They are the following: 1/parties and informal social gatherings, 2/ family, 3/educational organizations, 4/work relationships - offices, 5/service relationships - shops, restaurants, bars, etc. Our respondents (100), native speakers of each language under examination, are both males and females, aged between 25-40, inhabitants of rather large towns and holders of secondary and high schools diplomas. To elicit the answer about the usage of forms of address they were administered a questionnaire. Participant observation and interview were complementary techniques used to gather empirical data. The research was carried out in the years 1989-1992.

The results of this research show some very interesting regularities. The speakers of Polish and Italian show the most similarities, the French are as if a link between these two

communities, and the speakers of English are at the other end of the continuum as far as formality and respect reflected by forms of address are concerned. As the differences in the usage of terms of address are especially conspicuous at parties and other informal gatherings and in work these two kinds of social encounters will be discussed in my paper.

At parties and other informal socializing meetings Poles and Italians keep using formal titles such as professional, academic or rank titles, neutral titles ("pan/pani", "signor, signora, signorina") or their combination with family names or first names. A passage to first names is, especially in Polish, a ritual called "Bruderschaft" (brotherhood). French are less formal but even for them it is shocking, or at least difficult to accept an immediate use of first names. For the users from Polish, Italian and French cultures first names are associated with close, friendly or even intimate relationships and are emotion-loaded. Thus, various cultural attributions made to first names are responsible for their different semantic value and consequently usage.

The same can be said about work relationships and the active repertoires of terms of address used against their background. All kinds of titles, clusters of family names and the neutral title "pan/pani", "monsieur/madame", "signor/signora" together with their corresponding formal pronominal address patterns are the most often used by the speakers of Polish, Italian and French. If the language allows for coining half-formal terms of address they are used and overused as very handy, half-way between being nice and polite but not too friendly. The American usage of first names in a workplace is difficult for Polish, Italian and French speakers to accept. Neither Polish nor Italian nor else French employees introduce

themselves as Anna or Peter and they do not dare to call their customers or their superiors with their first names either, as it can be done in America.

Age and gender are important differentiating factors. Young people accept more easily informality expressed by means of terms of address. In homogeneous groups informality and corresponding linguistic expressions tend to be less formal. The passage from formality to informality is quicker and less ceremonious than when both genders are present. Then, women are addressed with more formal and respectful address patterns, as there exist two separate linguistic codes for men and women.

Language and culture are very closely interrelated. As Edward Hall has put it "Communication is culture and culture is communication", which means that although the same potential repertoires of means of expression and communicative strategies are available for the speakers of various languages the culture-motivated choices made by them will differ. Thus, there can be observed a general tendency of the speakers of Polish and Italian to be more affective, cordial and emotionally engaged, especially in informal conversations. Consequently these interlocutors use rather more emotion-loaded terms of address such as diminutives and hipocoristics than is done by the French and the British. Another reason accounting for such usage is the language systems of Polish and Italian which are more productive than French and English in this respect. This can also be explained by one of Hofstede's (1991) dimension of differences - power distance; its index for Poland and Italy is larger than for America, Great Britain and France. This cultural difference explains why Polish people and Italians mark distance more openly by means of forms of address and

Anglo-Saxon cultures do not, using other devices for it instead.

Although there are many more examples showing how various speech and culture communities use forms of address, I do hope that the above analysis of both potential and active repertoires of address patterns in Polish, Italian, French and English has made us sensitive to the differences between these patterns and their role in communication. To conclude, I would like to draw attention to two facts. Firstly, forms of address cannot be chosen at random despite being rather unproductive and conventionalized because in many encounters they are the first signals creating relationships between speakers, and they bring a lot of information about the whole encounter. Secondly, their usage follows very strict rules of socio-cultural behaviour and must be mastered by any successful communicator.

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Administrative Governmental Reform: An International Comparative Analysis

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Administrative Governmental Reform:
An International Comparative Analysis

Abstract

Since the early 1980s, reform of governmental structures and processes have captured the imagination of public sector managers at all levels of government, in the United States and internationally. Several western democracies including Sweden, New Zealand, Canada and Australia, have taken the lead in efforts to reform their governments. The reform efforts undertaken by these nations are assessed and the lessons learned from these reform efforts used to provide a perspective for assessing the current American reform effort.

Introduction

The recent report of the National Performance Review presents the current federal administration with a nearly overwhelming number of recommendations in an attempt to "reinvent" the federal public service. Several western democracies such as Sweden, Australia, Canada and New Zealand began this same assessment in the early 1980s. Heady (1984) suggests that administrative devices and techniques developed in other nations may prove worthy of consideration for adoption or adaptation within the United States. These four nations represent nearly 10 years of experience and effort in the development and implementation of new process and efforts of governmental reform and improvement. As the United States revisits the process of governmental reform, a careful analysis of the efforts of reform as well as the processes and procedures used, and the limitations experienced by these other nations would seem in order.

The current trend in governmental reform has been driven by five common factors: 1). The failure of the post-Keynsian welfare state with its significant growth in public bureaucracies to deliver needed goods and services, leading to citizen disenchantment. 2). Funding expenditures on public goods and services through taxation which diverts already scarce resources to less productive purposes and crowds out the private sector, by reducing both the size and role of the public sector, the so called crowding effect. 3). The conservative regimes of Ronald Reagan in the United States and Margaret Thatcher in Britain led to a movement of neo-conservatism applying pressure to reform the public sector and institute a new public management, with a major focus of reducing both the size and role of the public sector. 4). The demand by citizens for increased accountability, efficiency and effectiveness through Performance Measurement. and 5). The globalization of these national economies, with major emphasis and pressure from the international rating agencies such as the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank.

The processes and initiatives of reform vary nearly as much as do the governmental and political structures found within each nation. This is to be expected. As noted by Heady, "Any attempt to compare national administration systems must acknowledge the fact that administration in one aspect of the operation of a political system" (1994, p 12. This acknowledgement is equally valid for the comparison of reform efforts and processes. All of the reform efforts have had the broad goals of increasing ministerial responsibility and accountability as well as increasing departmental/ministerial efficiency.

The reform initiatives and processes undertaken by other nations such as Sweden, New Zealand, Canada and Australia, vary considerably between nations, economic systems, national governance models and strategic emphasis. The variations in reform efforts reflect the impact of these critical implementation variables. If the reform initiatives from other nations with some degree of commonality with the United States are to be assessed in order to gain a perspective of the current American reform effort, factors that limit and/or facilitate reform efforts in other countries must be clearly understood. The degree of successful implementation of reform efforts must also be assessed.

It is not the intent of this analysis to examine the degree to which the reforms have been successful in improving the effectiveness or efficiency of the governments under study. Rather, it is our intent to examine to what degree the reform efforts in these other nations have in fact been successfully implemented. We will explore governmental models and the individual countries' reform efforts.

Governmental Models

Each of the countries under study have developed national governance models based loosely on the British Parliamentary model. Canada, and Australia maintain a federal system with subordinate states or provinces. New Zeal and Sweden are comprised of a national government with subordinate local governments, without states or provinces. Within each nation, the relationship between the national government and the subordinate governmental entities varies. On the whole, subordinate levels of government are parliamentary in structure based on the national structure. The degree of autonomy and authority granted to the subordinate levels varies considerable, from a great deal under the Canadian system to a closer relationship under the Australian system. The relationship between the states and federal government in the United States is a middle ground between the Canadian and Australian systems.

This relationship significantly impacts the scope and breadth of the reform efforts within these nations. As would be expected, the more independent the subordinate levels of government, the greater the effort of compromise between the national and state/provincial governments. The lack of state or provincial governments in the New Zealand and Swedish models may significantly impact the applicability of the reform efforts to the American effort.

Two of the four nations under study maintain a bi-cameral legislative form of government at the national level. Canada and Australia have developed structures that combine elements of both the British Parliamentary systems and the American Congressional system. Sweden adopted a unicameral parliament in 1968. New Zealand adopted a unicameral in 1950, and New Zealand is the only nation under study without a written Constitution. The impact of bicameral vs unicameral structures on the reform efforts within each country and the impact on the applicability of these reform efforts to the American effort, may be significant.

Country Analysis

Sweden

Sweden maintains a representative, democratic monarchy model of governance. The Swedish government maintained a two chamber system of legislature until 1968 when it amended the Constitution to form the present unicameral system. The Riksdag consists of 349 seats distributed loosely between socialist and non-socialist parties. As in the British model, the electorate vote more for parties than individual candidates. The socialists have held a majority of seats, and therefore the Prime Minister since the 1950s

with the exception of 1976 and 1979 (Milner, 1989).

Below the national government, there is are "state" or "provincial" governmental entities. The subordinate levels of government consist of 23 "County Councils" and 280 municipal governments. These subordinate entities are responsible for the provision of medical care, transportation, schools, child and elder care as well as other social assistance programs, with funding from the national government. The national legislature, the Riksdag, is popularly elected. All citizens over 18 may vote. Elections are held every three years, unless a lack of confidence is found and a new election is called. Sweden, in 1976 posted the highest percentage of electorate participation in a national election of 91.8% of any western democracy.

The executive functions of government are carried out by the Prime Minister and the Cabinet. The responsibility for decision making within ministries and departments is considerable different in the Sweden than in the other countries under study. Individual ministers and department managers has only limited decision making authority over their ministries or agencies. The members of the Cabinet, the ministers, have no formal decision making powers on their own. Decisions are made in the name of the Cabinet as a collective body (Audit Bureau, 1992).

Reform Efforts:

The Swedish reform efforts are described as results based management and budget reform (Audit Bureau, 1992). The budget reform effort began with an in depth review of all governmental agency activities, reviewing and measuring not only the quantity of goods and services provided, but the quality of those goods and services. ne budget process was changed to allow each agency more responsibility as well as accountability for the efficiency and effectiveness of their programs. The major change coming when agencies and directorates were required to present objective measures of results based on achievement of goals and objectives as a part of the budget appropriation and allocation process.

This results base management demanded a careful review of all processes with each agency and a clear understanding of the resources to be allocated and the results to be achieved. The effort used in depth agency reviews, a three year budget cycle and responsibility and authority "pushed" significantly lower in the organization for budget and management decisions, within clear goals and objectives to achieve increases in productivity, quality and costs.

The Swedish government reform required that agencies evaluate the results of their activities, rationalize administrative procedures, and re-allocate priorities. This process placed greater demands on government agencies to assess results. Implicit in this demand was the ability to operationalize and measure the goals and objectives of the agencies relative to performance measures.

Central to the budget and management reforms was the institution of a three year budget cycle. In the years between budget years, simplified budget requests are made as adjustments for minor economic fluctuations warrant.

As a part of each year's budget request performance follow-up arid analysis is conducted to assist agency heads as well as policy makers in making budget decisions.

This major budget process reform requires agency heads and ministers to implement long term forecasting and adopt long term thinking. This long term thinking includes closer cooperation and communication between the Parliament and governmental agencies relative to the allocation of resources and priorities. This process allows and demands that the following questions be considered. What results have been achieved? How much did it cost to achieve them? Does the agency fulfill the requirements and conditions required? Is the public satisfied? How can performance be improved? These are significant questions that must be answered if performance of government is to be measured and the productivity and quality of government goods and services are to be improved.

The world wide recession of the early 90's significantly affected the Swedish economy, and the public sector reform efforts. Sweden has begun to move rapidly from it's traditional neutral stance to active engagement within the European Community (Papadopoulos, 1993). Since 1991, and the instillation of a new Conservative government, Sweden has begun a broad movement toward privatization of the economy (Lindberg, 1992). This move toward privatization is seen as an effort to reduce unemployment and revitalize a sagging economy. In order to continue this movement, the government reform efforts continue to revise the structure of the federal government, cut public spending and reduce tax levels (Blondal and Egebo, 1992).

Australia

The government of Australia is a representative, federal democracy model of governance combining features of both the American and British systems. The federal Parliament is comprised of a two chamber system comprised of the Senate and the House of Representatives, similar to the American system. The Parliament is popularly elected, all citizens over 18 may vote, other electoral requirements being determined by the states. The Parliament is elected every three years, unless a lack of confidence in the ruling administration is indicated. When this occurs, the Governor-General, calls for new elections. The Prime Minister and members of the Cabinet are chosen from the members of the lower house.

All appropriation and budget bills must originate in the House of Representatives, as in the American system. The Parliament consists of ten senators from each state in the Senate and the seats in the House of Representatives are distributed among the states in Districts based on the population. The Commonwealth was formed in 1900 by act of the British Parliament. However, unlike the American system, powers not granted to the states are reserved for the federal government. Australia is a member of the British Commonwealth and as such, the Queen is the sovereign of Australia. As in the British model, the electorate vote more for parties than individual candidates.

Reforms Efforts:

The Australian reform efforts have been based on several acts of Parliament and studies undertaken by the government beginning in the early 1983. These measures were comprehensive and entailed substantial reform programs. The initiatives included changes to budgetary, regulatory and administrative frameworks as well as a restructuring of the personnel and financial management standards.

As in several of the other efforts under study, the Australian placed considerable emphasis on medium to long term planning and setting of agency priorities while expanding agency management and control of budgets and expenditures. The process also permitted greater responsibility and authority to agency managers, as well as improving program and agency effectiveness through greater accountability and results based management. The budget reform effort began with an in depth review of all budgetary and regulatory frameworks, program management and budgeting and commercial practices. This review lead to the development of the Financial Management Improvement Program (FMIP).

The FMIP formed the major component and center piece of the governmental reform movement. The FMIP was only part of the reform movement put in place. As such it provided structures and procedures to streamline budget formulation processes and simplify and update the body of rules regulating public financial management. To improve the system by which departments and agencies make decisions, manage and evaluate achievements and to enhance public accountability and scrutiny. To achieve these ends, the following central principles of government provided the underpinning to achieve major reforms and significant improvements in productivity, quality and cost savings. Devolution of control from central agencies and within departments to increase managerial flexibility. Adoption of the "user pays principle". Increased public accountability. Measurement and emphasis on effective performance.

Canada

Canada is a federal federation of semi-autonomous provinces and territories. The power of the federal government is distributed among these several provinces. One third of Canada is comprised of the Yukon and Northwest Territories which are under direct jurisdiction of the federal government. The national Parliament is a bicameral body comprised of the House of Commons and the Senate. Seats within the House of Commons are apportioned to each province and territory by population. The members of the House of Commons are popularly elected and unlike Australia or New Zealand, do not have a required length of service. The members of Parliament normally serve for a period of about four years before new elections are called for. There are currently 259 members of the House of Commons. Members of the Senate are appointed by the Governor-General, who represents the Queen of the United Kingdom, for life. The Senate is overwhelmingly the weaker of the two houses. The Prime Minister is elected by the ruling party in Parliament and he/she appoints a cabinet which controls the executive branch of the government.

The provinces and the federal government share power and the provinces have considerably more autonomy under the Canadian system that do states in the United States or Australia. For example the individual provinces are allowed to make laws and policy relative to immigration and agriculture. Provinces are given greater taxing authority than is given to the states within the United States.

Reform Efforts:

A.W. Johnson, Auditor General of Canada has suggested that one of the paradoxes of the reform effort in Canada is that the goals of the effort, from 1962 to 1991 has always been the same. "To achieve greater effectiveness, efficiency and economy in the administration of public affairs and to manage the public's resources with probity and prudence". Yet, what ever methods have been employed, the goals themselves have not been achieved (1992, p #).

The Canadian effort in reform has been comprised of three basic elements. 1). The Deputy Ministers should assume greater responsibility for the administration of the departments and programs. 2). There should be a strong central management board to hold the deputy ministers accountable for their newfound powers. and 3). If the deputy ministers responsibility was to be increased, how was accountability to be increased correspondingly?

The reform effort has taken the form of two concentrations. First, efficiency, was the government getting "value-for-money" in the operations of the departments. Second, effectiveness, assuring that the Government's Policies and Programs are effective in achieving the government's goals. The Royal Commissions dating back to 1962, have made and significant changes have been implement to address both of these concentrations

The issue of ministerial responsibility and accountability is still being debated. The process of performance evaluation has been assessed as a method to improve the accountability of agencies and departments to the House of Commons. These effectiveness evaluations have been seen as not only contributing to good decision making, but as an instrument of accountability.

The Increased Ministerial Authority and Accountability program of 1986 and the Public Service 2000 Program have provided proposals, of broad scope for reform of budget allocation and expenditure decisions. These reforms have been in keeping the effort to achieve both a measure of central control of departments and ministries and, allowing increased flexibility in program and department decision making.

The Canadian effort has achieved limited success in the implementation of these reform efforts. There has been success in streamlining the executive branch of government by reducing layers of management and by reducing the number of cabinet level departments from 28 to 18. The departments have been more successful in developing mission statements and the development of performance measurement processes. These efforts have improved the delivery of services to Canadian citizens. Strides have been made in improving the consultation and involvement of stakeholders in department and agency decisions.

The success of the PS2000 program has been achieved through a balance of control mechanism for both Parliament and Ministerial Management. This balance has significantly improved the effectiveness and the efficiency of the Canadian Public service. The key appears to be a concerted effort, within a spirit of cooperation, to make significant structural changes in decision making through out the federal public service. The issues of department and agency accountability to Parliament are still being debated and assessed. Both Parliamentarians and Managers agree that the need for increased creativity, innovation and risk taking on the part of public managers must be balanced with the need for Parliament to maintain budgetary control and accountability to the citizenry.

New Zealand

The government of New Zealand was created from and Act of the British Parliament. The "Constitution" of New Zealand is in reality a collection of these works of Parliament enacted in 1852. These acts collectively created six provinces subordinate to the National government, each with elected legislatures and executives. The central government was given controls over these provincial governments (Levine, 1979).

The original Acts created a central legislature, the General Assembly, consisting of the Governor, an appointed Legislative Council and the elected House of Representatives. The House members were to be elected through popular, universal election. Election of Parliament occurs every three years. The boundaries of individual Representative constituencies is established by national Commission.
In 1876, the provincial governments were abolished, creating a unitary governmental structure and in 1950, the Legislative Council was abolished creating a uni-cameral legislature (Levine,1979). The Prime Minister is elected from Parliament and the Ministers of the Cabinet act in a duel role of executive and as legislative in that they are responsible for the operations of the their department as well as participating in the Parliament.

Reform Efforts:

New Zealand has moved significantly from the Swedish effort of planned, Democratic Socialist government to a market model. Since 1984, this movement has been a reform effort driven by decentralization and demands for increased efficiency and effectiveness (Wistrich, 1992). The economy has been progressively deregulated and government reform emphasis has been on devolution of authority and responsibility as well as increased privatization (Davis, Hamilton and Finlay, 1992).

Governmental agencies have been granted increased autonomy to create human resource systems and capital replacement processes as well as increase the usage of traditional business finance and management processes. The national budget process has been reformed to a more business like accounting system. New Zealand has become the first country to publish a rational set of government accounts that includes a balance sheet of its assets and liabilities and an accrual based operating statement of income and

expenses that is similar to the accounts of a publicly held company (Economist, 1992).

The reforms to improve performance and accountability have been aimed at improving the overall efficiency of government (Goldman and Brashares, 1991). Like the Australian and Canadian reform efforts, the New Zealand efforts have attempted to increase efficiency and effectiveness through 1). Separating commercial functions of governmental agencies and departments from other governmental operations, i.e. privatization. 2). Strengthening the lines of ministerial and governmental executive accountability and 3). to reform and design budget and financial management systems to improve the measurement of public sector performance (Goldman and Brashares, 1991).

Discussion / Analysis:

While all of the reform efforts reviewed have the goals of increased efficiency and effectiveness, the process of reform, the impact on the process on government, and the outcome is significantly different. Each of these reform efforts provides a different perspective on the process of governmental reform. Within the nations studied, two, Sweden and New Zealand have the most divergent governmental structures from the United States. The uni-cameral, nonfederal Parliamentary structure of these nations would seem to limit the applicability of their public sector reform efforts to the United States.

The significant movement in both Sweden and New Zealand toward large scale privatization of the traditionally more planned economy represents very real reform. This reform may be made easier because of the economic conditions of high unemployment and sluggish economic growth as well as the structural basis of agency and ministerial responsibility and decision making.

The common thread of reform of responsibility and accountability within the executive branch of all of these nations represents possibly the greatest opportunity for transfer of managerial technology. Both the Canadian and the Australian efforts have gone to great lengths to review, analyze and debate the proper role of agency heads, deputy ministers and ministers within the Cabinet.

Both the Canadian and Australian efforts have made significant progress in the development of performance measurement system and executive branch streamlining through departmental consolidation. Where as the Swedish and New Zealand efforts have been toward increasing decentralization, the Canadian and Australian efforts have been in the opposite direction. It will remain to be seen which of these directions will bear the most fruit.

All of the reform efforts reviewed appear to have considerably more of a directed focus than does the current American effort. A careful reading of not only the Report of the National Performance Review, but the subsequent General Accounting Officer Review of that report suggests a rather haphazard and fractured effort at reform in the United States, rather than any attempt to provide guidance toward a more focused and planned reform effort.

The current American effort, has been suggested by Moe (1994) as a shift in the public administration paradigm from one of "administration management" to one of

"entrepreneurial management". This shift represents an analysis that assumes the failure of the governance paradigm of "administrative management". The values underlying the new paradigm represent a very real change in philosophical direction. Moe (1994) notes that under the new "paradigm" of governance, "Change is an instrumental value and like efficiency, another instrumental value has no normative content until linked with some other concept or objective".

This same shift in the paradigm of governance appears to be a significant part of the Swedish and New Zealand models as well. Throughout the report of the National Performance Review, there is the assumption that there is an ability to directly transfer managerial and structural forms from the private sector to the public sector. Through reduction of "red tape", "putting the customers first", "Empowering Employees to get results" and "Cutting back to basics", by accepting this new governance paradigm, the citizenry of the United States will be better served.

The American reform effort assumes that change in and of itself is a "good". In light of this change in values the American reform effort lacks the sense of cohesive focus found in these other reform efforts. The American effort does not provide for mechanisms for timely governmental structural or administrative changes that will be necessary to further the reform effort. While the Canadian reform effort consolidated departments and ministries, with a consolidation of functions, and the Australian effort moved to decentralize decision making, the American effort does neither.

The recommendations presented by the Review are at times schizophrenic. The Review presents an analysis of the current budget process that is critical of the long lead time, "Early in the year, each agency estimates what it will need to run its programs in the fiscal year that begins almost 2 years later." In almost the same breath so to speak the Review makes the recommendation for a bi-annual budget cycle which will make the estimates three or more nearly four years out. The Review calls for the "reduction of government" by the reduction of personnel with the assumption that these personnel are the government, without a corresponding decrease in the functions these people perform.

The Review very nearly recommends that managers in federal agencies be allowed to break the law. There are many specific recommendations that suggest that public managers be allowed to by-pass, negate or other wise laws and regulations enacted by the Congress. These recommendations effectively circumvent the rule of law for these agencies. In many cases, these procedures, regulations and processes have been instituted by Congress, the representatives of the citizenry at large.

A more careful review by the Office of the Vice President of these other national governmental reform efforts would be in order. More research needs to be conducted into both the outcome and the overall impact of these governmental reform efforts. The question of the ability to develop causal models between the reform efforts and national economic health or well being needs to be answered. Further analysis of the process of implementation of these reform efforts, and the impact of nationally and culturally specific intervening variables must be addressed before direct transfer of these managerial technologies can be assessed.

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Peacespeak: A Framework for Using Language for Peace

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Peacespeak: A Framework for Using Language for Peace

ABSTRACT

The way we use language can either interfere with or promote the cause of peace. Like all human behavior, speech acts are correctly performed only if certain conditions obtain. Drawing on speech act theory and Sissela Bok's peace theory, this paper proposes four appropriateness conditions for the use of language when our purpose is to promote a social climate which is conducive to achieving peace.

Key words: LANGUAGE
COMMUNICATION
APPROPRIATENESS
PEACE

Last fall, a guest speaker appeared at Kean College of New Jersey, where I teach. What Dr. Khalid Abdul Muhammad had to say generated a great deal of controversy on campus and in the media. The administration's decision to allow him to speak despite his being known as a hate-mongerer was defended in the name of pluralism, diversity, and multiculturalism. His words were defended in the name of freedom of speech. Now, I'm not against pluralism, diversity, and multiculturalism. And I'm certainly not against the first Amendment. But there's something wrong with speech that calls for killing all the whites in South Africa--women, and babies included. The way we use language can, I believe, either interfere with or promote the goal of peace. By drawing on speech act theory, discourse theory, and Sissela Bok's strategy for peace, I will propose four appropriateness conditions for the use of language when our purpose is to promote a social climate conducive to achieving peace.

Speech act theorists have analyzed language use in terms of the acts performed in saying something and the rules that govern language use. Like all human behavior, speech acts are felicitously performed only if certain conditions obtain. These felicity or appropriateness conditions represent rules speakers unconsciously rely on in order to use language correctly and effectively for a given purpose. H. Paul Grice (1975) described these conditions for speech acts whose purpose is a maximally effective exchange of information in terms of a Cooperative Principle and four sets of conversational maxims observed in observing the Cooperative Principle.

Sissela Bok, in her book A Strategy for Peace (1990), proposes steps toward peace which are based on widely shared human values. Drawing on the thinking of Immanuel Kant, she identifies the four moral constraints most needed to achieve the climate in which peace can be achieved.

According to Grice's Cooperative Principle, one makes his or her conversational contribution such as is required by the accepted purpose of the talk exchange in which one is engaged. This purpose may be to lie and deceive, even to incite to violence; the Cooperative Principle applies to unethical as well as ethical purposes. But the realization of peace requires that a basic purpose of communication be to promote peace. Speech act theory and Bok's peace theory suggest that the appropriateness conditions on language used to promote peace are as follows:

1. Promote understanding. Language whose effect is to deceive, obfuscate or cloak reality, trivialize or oversimplify fails to promote the understanding people need if we are to achieve peace. This is in line with Grice's maxims of quantity, quality and manner: Make your contribution one that is true; Be perspicuous; Avoid obscurity of expression; Avoid ambiguity; Be brief; as well as Bok's constraints on deceit and excessive secrecy. New ideas and change are accepted only when communication is clear.

How language is used in ways which do not promote understanding has been documented in several books listed in References, below. The Quarterly Review of Doublespeak has published examples of doublespeak in advertising, business, government, politics, the military, the media and education for years.

Carol Cohn (1988) has vividly described how using a certain kind of language distances nuclear industry workers from the realities of nuclear war and enables them to coldly discuss it without comprehending its horror. In this and undoubtedly many similar situations, the accepted mode of discourse distances actions from their effects, thereby enabling people to perform work which has noxious effects without thinking about those effects.

Attempts to sweeten, obfuscate, or trivialize harsh realities may be carried out with the best of intentions. Describing Billy as inattentive when he is unable to keep up may seem to serve noble purposes. But in so doing, it may lessen the chance that the system will understand that Billy needs help.

Pat Belanoff (1990) has described how writing about a topic in academicese structured her subject in such a way that it seemed to be under total control while she was perfectly aware that

it was not at all under control in her mind. In this way the effect of academic writing is, she claims, to obscure reality; it imposes control on what is not under control. By making what is unorderly appear orderly or by giving solidity to pure air, the writer deceives others, if not him- or herself.

Jurgen Habermas has proposed a model of human beings interacting for the purpose of reaching an understanding; his "discourse ethics" is concerned with reconstructing the procedural norms that are implicit in the communicative process and has pointed out that when there are hidden or not-so-hidden agendas or motives or where there are obstacles to discourse created by deception, power, and ideology, there is no possibility of reaching an understanding.

2. Promote cooperation among people. Bok stresses how age-old patterns of conflict and excesses of partisanship keep us from achieving the global perspective necessary for peace. Successful communication from a peace perspective serves to resolve or at least reduce undesirable conflict and lessen tension. When the effect of speech is to set up or reinforce divisions among individuals, groups or nations, the possibility of cooperation diminishes.

Language for peace does not exaggerate divisions among people or create distance between "us" and "them." Neither does it reduce pluralism, diversity and multiculturalism. Rather, it relates people in unifying ways. Perhaps even more than people in other fields, educators should relate to others in unifying ways. And yet academic jargon flows thick in journals, at professional meetings and sometimes even in the classroom. One result is incomprehension, but jargon also distances academics from nonacademics.

3. Open debate. A prerequisite for peace is open dialogue; therefore, language appropriate to the goal of peace provides needed information and does not cut off dialogue. Grice's maxims of quantity, Make your contribution as informative as required, and of relation, Be relevant, may be taken to suggest that withholding needed relevant information violates general appropriateness conditions. The excessive secrecy condemned by Bok conceals information and actions which should be taken into account in our effort to arrive at just solutions.

When speakers ignore opposing viewpoints, they lead their listeners into uninformed acceptance of their views. When they use jargon, they cause listeners to feel ignorant or uninformed and promote docility, making the listeners less likely to question or challenge what they hear.

4. Inspire trust. Bok emphasizes that the cooperation needed to attain peace is impossible without a certain level of mutual trust. Trust and mistrust derive from expectations. If communication fails to meet the expectations of a listener and if those expectations are the conditions outlined in this paper, then the effect of the communication is to inspire distrust of the speaker and/or of what is said.

Bok includes in her set of constraints one on violence. When the effect of language is violence in any of its many forms, this also undermines cooperation. The listener who feels manipulated or exploited is less likely to cooperate. And students can lose interest in a course or in school altogether as a result of verbal abuse.

Uses of language which violate these appropriateness conditions can interfere with the peace objective. On the other hand, some violations--euphemism and jargon, for example--can serve laudable purposes from a peace perspective. Investigation of such questions as the following is needed if we wish to fully understand the relation between language use and peace: In what contexts are euphemism, metaphor, and other figures of speech harmless? In what contexts and in what ways are they harmful? At what point on the clearspeak to gobbledygook continuum do euphemism and metaphor become doublespeak? What determines whether the meaning or effect of an utterance is the intended one? How could appropriate and inappropriate uses of language from a peace perspective be characterized? To what extent does inappropriate language use perpetuate conflict, violence, inequalities and distrust? To what extent does it numb us to realities we need to be aware of? Answers to some of these questions may be forthcoming from critical linguistics, which proposes a new approach to discourse analysis, one

that increases consciousness about how linguistic usage both reflects and helps create social reality. Critical language study involves the discovery through linguistic analysis of the hidden connections among language, power, and ideology.

Peace is a cause we all believe in. Many of us want to contribute to this cause but may not know what we can do. Peace activism begins at home, in our minds and in our use of language. As Sissela Bok puts it, "All those who strive . . . to reduce the sway of violence and deceit, betrayal and secrecy, are doing practical work for peace (p. 106). Our use of language in our personal and professional lives can exemplify peace. "Transformation," says Betty Reardon, "requires that we change our language, as well as--or perhaps as a means to--change our way of thinking" (1988, p. 52). While it could be argued that language is not the problem, that language is merely sympotomatic of the underlying disease--that is, the thinking which produces the language--and is thus not really the problem, it is also true that becoming aware of linguistic inappropriateness and changing inappropriate language practices is a significant element in bringing about social change. The imposition of speech codes at colleges and workplaces is intended to make people aware of their responsibilities as users of language, to think before they speak, and to increase awareness that inappropriate language use can jeopardize the community of trust or peace enjoyed by society. Freedom of speech is not absolute. We are not free to use language irresponsibly.

Grice's work describes what is appropriate in general language use. His approach is not prescriptive in nature; there is no need to promote his maxims. There is, however, a need to promote the appropriate conditions for language for peace. In describing appropriateness conditions for language from the perspective of peace, I am suggesting that it is possible to promote the cause of peace by becoming more aware of the ways in which language can be inappropriate insofar as peace is concerned and of the effects of inappropriateness.

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Is National Health Insurance Needed?

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Is National Health Insurance Needed?

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to examine what are the problems with health insurance in the United States. Does health insurance follow the general principles of insurance. Does it follow the general principles of economics. It concludes with a plan that would solve most of the problems.

Everybody agrees that the United States has the best health care in the world. The problem has been how to pay for this health care. One solution has been to have national health insurance. Others claim that the reason the United States has the best health care in the world is because the United States does not have national health insurance. The purpose of this paper is to examine the question: Is national health insurance needed in the United States? In 1993 and the first half of 1994, there was a strong political movement for national health insurance. By July of 1994, most of the support disappeared. The first question is why did this happen. In 1993, the issues dealt with the general principles of health insurance. There was strong support from those who wanted universal coverage, more coverage for the existing individuals, and lower cost. In 1994, the issue turned to writing a bill that carried out these objectives. This was where the problem arose, in that you normally can't cover more people with more programs at a lower cost unless there are inefficiencies in the system. There are probably inefficiencies in the system but most of the bills in Congress did not go after these inefficiencies if they existed. Most of the inefficiencies that were mentioned were of the type of too many different forms and if there was only one standard form this would improve efficiencies There is a serious question of how much could be saved by efficiencies such as these. This does not include the single payer system where the government would collect the revenue and make the payments as in done in Medicare. This would eliminate the cost of insurance companies and agents.

In the United States, 14% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is spent on health care while in the rest of the world, the average is 6 to 7 percent. The question is why is such a large part of GDP spent on health care in the United States. One of the reasons is that the United States has the best health care in the world from a technological point. There are many very expensive machines used in treating individuals which keep them alive and requires the use of trained specialists. In other countries, health care costs are held down by rationing similar to the plan the state of Oregon is trying to get approved. Under the Oregon plan, the different types of medical treatments are ranked and there is a cut off point for the services paid for by the government. This plan would not effect private payments for medical services. If a person needs a medical treatment that is above the cut off point, they receive the medical treatment. If medical treatment is below the cut off point, they will not receive the medical treatment. The cutoff point is adjusted each year based on the amount of money that will be spent by the state on medical services. If the

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The purpose of the price for a good or service is to ration that good or service. If a person is willing and able to pay the market price for the good and service, they will receive the good or service. If not, they will not receive the good or service. If there is no price to the individual receiving the good or service, than there will be an overuse of that good or service. The reason why in the United States, 14% of GDP is being spent on health care is because the price system is not rationing health service. Why is health services similar to a free good. The reason is that in the United States most of the cost for health care is either paid by the individuals employer or the government therefore there is little or no incentive for the person not to use the service. If the individual had to pay the cost for the health service, less of it will be used. In other countries, where the government pays for health services, they are not using the price system but they keep costs under control by making individuals wait for medical services. When the price is not allowed to ration goods and services, a way of doing this is setting up a waiting list or denying it to them. This is the purpose of the Oregon plan. In the United States, which allows individuals to choose their own doctors and hospitals this will not work. This was one of the reasons for limiting choice in President Clintons original health plan. So long as individuals can choose their own doctors and hospitals, rationing can not occur by making individuals wait. With health alliances or HMO where the individual can only get treatment through that organization, costs can be controlled by limiting treatment.

In most of the world, the government pays for and controls health services. Why in the United States are most individuals covered by their employer The reason is an accident of history. During world war II the government imposed wage price controls to keep inflation under control. This limited the wages that a company could pay their workers. In a normal market, if a company needs to hire additional workers and can't hire them at the wage they are currently paying, they raise the wages until they can hire the number of people they need. But with wage controls, the government prohibits the company from raising their wages and therefore the company can not find the needed workers. The way that companies got around the wage controls were to increase fringe benefits because the government decided that fringe benefits were not wages. While they were not wages, they did increase the employees total compensation and did allow companies to compete for workers. Health insurance was a major fringe benefit. This is a cost to the company and with the increasing cost of health services is one of the main reasons why workers real wages has not increased over time. Just about all of the increase in compensation has

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been in the form of higher fringe benefits. From 1965 to 1991 in constant dollars wages increased only 7 % while health benefits increased 453 %. ~~Footnote 1~~ (ON CAMPUS) P 7)

There is also a benefit for the employee to receive their health care as a fringe benefit rather than receiving a higher wage and than have to pay for their health cost and this is that fringe benefits are not considered income by the government and therefore it value is not taxed. This benefits high income individuals more than low income individuals. This also generates less taxes for the government. This paper does not deal with that issue.

There is also the question of whether the present system of health insurance is truly insurance. The purpose of insurance is to cover a person for the large unexpected costs. An example of this is property insurance. The probability of a person's house being destroyed is small but if it did happen, the economic effect on the individual is large. Therefore for a small cost (premium) the individual insures themselves against the possibility of a large unexpected cost. While health insurance could be this way, today it is nothing more in most cases than prepaid medical expenses. Many plans today, cover almost all the costs of medical services. In fact, there is nothing wrong with this when it is combined with the fact that the health insurance is paid by the employer and therefore is part of the employee's compensation. The problem is that many individuals don't understand this connection. It should be pointed out that politicians either don't understand this or they figure the voters don't understand this connection. Otherwise, the issue of employer mandates would not be an issue because if employers pay for health insurance it becomes part of the cost of hiring employees and lowers their wages. One problem with having health insurance as a fringe benefit is if an employee does not use the medical services, they do not receive any benefit from the fringe benefit while they are paying for it by lower wages. This causes an over use of the service. A better system would be if the health insurance costs a company $ 3,000 per employee, the company would not provide the employee with the insurance but would increase the employee wages by $ 3,000 which the employee could use to pay for medical services or other goods and services. Since the individual is now paying for each doctor's visit and other medical costs, they will limit the use of these service as individuals do with all items they purchase. Therefore the amount of GDP that is spent on health services will decrease unless the individuals believe that the purchases are the best use for their money. This is not a complete solution to the problem because some people have major medical problems that would wipe them out financially. In the current health

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care debate, these are the cases that are used to try to persuade people to favor President Clinton's plan. But in fact these cases have nothing to do with the Clinton plan. The major expenses in the Clinton plan are for the small expected costs. What is needed is catastrophic health insurance. This would be insurance that would pay all medical costs if they are greater than say 25 % of a persons yearly income or it could be set up so that if the payments average more than a set amount (say 25 %) over three or four years. The percent could be set at a lower level for low income individuals and increased as a person's income increases. It could be set at 10% for individuals making $ 20,000 a year and set at 50% for individuals making $ 200,000 a year. This insurance would have no upper limit. One of the major problems with health insurance today is that there is an upper limit on how much a policy will pay. For many policies it is a million dollars, but some illness could cost this much. It is a unusual event but it does occur. This is the true purpose of insurance which is to cover the person for the large unexpected costs. Since these types of illnesses are relatively rare, the average cost per person covered is small compared to the type of health insurance there is today. Combining catastrophic health insurance with a plan that gives an employee a wage increase equal to what their employer is currently paying for health insurance would solve the health insurance problem in the United States. Since business would not be paying for health insurance, future wages would increase more than with employers paying for health insurance. The total compensation package would increase by the same amount but more would go to wages and less to fringe benefits.

The final question is how to best to implement this plan. The most efficient way to implement this plan would be through the present Federal tax system. Under present tax law, an individual can deduct their medical costs if it is beyond a certain percent of their adjusted gross income. In 1994, it is 7.5%. This adjustment lowers their taxable income and therefore the amount of taxes the individuals pays. The problem with the present system is that it only lowers the taxable income and once the taxable income reaches zero the person does not have to pay taxes but their medical expenses might still continue. The changes that should be made is rather than having a tax deduction, it should be changed to a tax credit which is applied directly to a person taxes. Also if an individual has medical expenses greater than the amount of taxes that they owe, they will receive this money from the government. It is similar to the present earned income tax credit. To give an example of this new medical payments plan, the following figures will be used: individual has an income of $ 50,000,

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the percent of income not covered is 15%, the person's federal income taxes for the year was going to be $ 10,000 and they had medical bills of $100,000 in a year. The amount not covered would be $ 7,500 (15% of $ 50,000). The amount covered would be $ 92,500. Since this is greater than the $ 10,000 in taxes the person would have paid, they would receive from the government a payment of $ 82,500 for the year. Where would the government get the money to pay for this? Since employees would be receiving the cost of there health insurance as wages, the government could tax it as normal income and use the tax revenue to pay for the program. The exact rates could be set so that it would be budget neutral.

In conclusion, since the individual will now be paying for small medical services they will no longer treat it as a free good and will use it only if they believe the benefits they receive from the service equal the cost. This is the way the market system maximizes social welfare in that individuals spend their money money in a way that the benefit they receive from each good and service equals the price they pay for that good and service. The present health insurance system which removes the person from directly paying for their health services defeats the basic principle of the market system. The problem with a pure market system solution is that some individuals have very serious (expensive) illnesses and different income levels therefore there is a need for catastrophic insurance and for the government to redistribute income to make sure everybody can pay for catastrophic health insurance. This plan does both. With individuals paying the costs for most of their medical services, there will be cost containment as with most goods and services. By making changes in the present tax code, it would eliminate the need to create new government agencies. The IRS will need more employees. Under this system there would be saving since there would be no role for insurance companies. This would be a major political problem in getting such a program passed.

4 On Campus. published by the American Federation of Teachers AFL-CIO, 555 New Jersey Avenue, N.W., Washington, DC, March 1994. Volume 13, No 6. P 7. Their source Health Care Financing Administration, Office of the Actuary: Data from the Office of National Health Statistics

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Students' Stereotypes of Non-western Cultures and the Effects on Global Awareness

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Students' Stereotypes of Non-western Cultures and the Effects on Global Awareness

Introduction

In the past three decades, American educators have been trying to figure out how to create in their students' knowledge of global awareness. The need for a global perspective in the school curriculum has been underscored by events occurring in the global society. Increasingly, nations, societies, and cultures have become interconnected and interdependent. Advances in science and technology have brought nations and peoples closer to each other to such an extent that it has resulted in the creation of a global network where the effect of a political upheaval or a natural disaster in one nation is felt worldwide.

In recent years a number of incidences have occurred to illustrate how an event in one nation could have a negative impact on the economy or the welfare of people in another country. Some examples which we have witnessed in the past decades include the OPEC oil embargo of the late 1970s, which resulted in long queue at gas stations in cities across the United States, the South African apartheid problem, and its impact on United States companies as a result of disinvestments, and closures of subsidiary companies in South Africa, and in 1990, the Iraq/Kuwait conflict which would have had a devastating impact on oil supplies to the United States and other nations of the world if the United States, the United Nations, and the allied forces had not intervened by the use of military action (Operation Desert Storm). In each of these instances, the United States has been intricately involved and has assumed leadership positions where important decisions have had to be made. However, the extent of the United State's success in making reasonable judgements and influencing the outcome of political events globally, will be dependent on how much its leaders, and the general electorate who shape public policy know about other cultures of the world. In other words, the more Americans know about other cultures and nations, the more the political leaders will be able to make objective and valid decisions on matters involving other countries that have global consequences. This reasoning underscores the need for schools to educate students in programs that will create in them knowledge of global awareness.

Unfortunately, research currently demonstrates that American citizens and students have very limited knowledge of other cultures (Becker and Anderson, 1980; Wilson, 1982; Torney-Purta, 1982; Metzger, 1983; Osunde, 1984; Ravitch and Finn, 1987). For example, in 1980, Barrows, Clark, and Klein analyzed the result of a study conducted by the Educational Testing Service which confirmed that most American students

are naive concerning knowledge of other countries. The Educational Testing Service's study found that a majority of American students in the fourth, eighth, and twelfth grades, and in college had a surprisingly limited understanding of other countries. The efforts to correct this deficiency in the school curriculum has resulted in the development of a discipline called global education.

According to Lee Anderson (1979), global education consists of efforts to bring about changes in the content, in the methods, and in the social context of education in order to better prepare students for citizenship in a global age. Similarly, the National Council for the Social Studies (1982), pointed out that "global education refers to efforts to cultivate in young people a perspective of the world which emphasizes the interconnections among cultures, species and the planet. The purpose of global education is to develop in youths the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to live effectively in a world possessing limited natural resources and characterized by ethnic diversity, cultural pluralism and increasing interdependence." The understanding of peoples who are different, and the awareness of the economic, political, and social dynamics of the world is the main focus of the knowledge in global education. This assumption is also prominent in the definition posited in a recent article by Merryfield (1994) where it was noted that "global education is the knowledge, skills or attitudes taught in order that students might understand the world and its peoples."

Social Studies teachers in institutions of higher education in the United States have been the most vocal proponents of global education. Along with colleagues in the social sciences, they have argued that students should be prepared differently to be able to deal with the challenges of our contemporary society. They urged schools to develop curricula which will enable students to acquire the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed for them to function effectively in an interdependent global society (Boyer, 1983, 1992; Gilliom and Harf, 1985; Goodlad, 1986; Ravitch and Finn, 1987). Scholars in specialties such as the natural sciences, and the humanities were called upon to assist in the crusade. Advocates of global education have pointed out that global perspectives could be infused in subject areas which normally do not lend themselves to such treatment. Today, a number of schools districts have introduced global education programs into their schools' curriculum. In order to provide enough teachers who could teach from global perspective, an encouraging number of colleges and universities have begun to offer degree programs in global education (Merryfield, 1990). Despite these efforts, a number of students are still not well informed of global issues and culture. A majority have misconceptions and stereotypes of other nations and cultures (Beyer, 1969; Osunde, Brown, and Tlou, 1993).

In this study our interest was to find out how to promote global awareness among students. We tried to find out factors that could impede the promotion of global awareness. We hypothesize that students who have stereotypes of other cultures would be disinterested in learning about them. It is our belief that students can be encouraged to learn about other cultures if they can be assisted to eradicate or minimize their stereotypes which tends to act as a barrier to understanding the cultures. Through this approach, educators would be helping to increase global awareness among students. This study focuses special attention on Africa, and other non-western cultures.

Methodology

This study is a follow-up of the Osunde, Brown and Tlou (1993) study which attempted to document the common misconceptions and the stereotypes of students in learning and teaching of content on Africa and other non-western nations. Since the purpose of this study was to find out how students stereotypes of non-western cultures would influence knowledge of global awareness, we decided that a majority of our sample should consist of the students who participated in the study that we conducted in 1993.

Nevertheless, our sample consisted of one hundred and twenty-five (N=125) preservice social studies teachers. Two-thirds of the participants were female and one-third were male. A majority of the students were seniors. In other words, they were in their last year of college; preparing to become professional teachers.

Research Instrument

The research instrument utilized in this study consisted of a series of structured questions which were designed to enable the participants to provide written responses and detailed comments. For example, one of the questions asked participants to identify a culture or a nation and to explain their own stereotype(s) of that culture. Another question required participants to explain how the stereotypes prevents them from learning or acquiring more knowledge about the culture. To supplement and enrich the responses and comments, we interviewed some of the participants. The interviews helped to clarify the comments by some of the participants. We found these two techniques adequate for our study because it provided us with very comprehensive information on the phenomenon of our inquiry.

Results and discussion

The analysis of the data for this study reveals that there is a relationship between stereotypes and interest to read or learn something

about other cultures or nations. Out of the one-hundred and twenty-five participants in this study, one-hundred and fifteen (92%) agreed that their stereotypes were responsible for their disinterest in learning about other cultures. The findings represent the preservice social studies teachers' perception about how stereotypes can influence negatively or positively the propagation of global awareness. The following excerpts from a few responses and examples of the effect of stereotypes clearly illustrate the findings.

1. *Students' stereotypes and global awareness.* Generally, stereotypes acts as a shield or a barrier to global awareness. Negative stereotypes as those often portrayed on the television are powerful instruments in turning off students to learn about a culture. Comments by some of those participating in this study confirms the effects of stereotypes. For example, Carly notes that "stereotypes prevents people from learning because they create a barrier between the truth and myth. If a person feels they are above a culture they will choose not to hear what is important. It is necessary to stress both sides of the story in order to show all the beliefs and arguments. This is one way to alleviate some stereotypes." Similarly, Amanda points out that "these ridiculous stereotypes serve as a barrier that keep out learning. We learn that Japanese people are foreigners and therefore alien to us. If you grow up hearing that, you begin to believe it, unless you are taught otherwise." Jason notes "since these stereotypes are in our minds I feel that it is hard to believe anything else heard or read. I believe that we've come to accept these stereotypes because that is the only part of the culture we see. When I have learned about Africa, it was only about the 'natives' who live in the woods and hunt wild animals. Television bombards us with the dying peoples of Ethiopia so that is what the people will associate Africa with." Corroborating Jason's comment, Jennifer stressed that "the stereotype of the people of Africa prohibit people of other cultures from learning about them. In many peoples' minds African people are primitive and uncivilized. Once someone has this in their head, they will close their mind to new ideas and information. So much that can be learned from people of other cultures, such as the peoples of Africa, will never be known."

2. *On some common stereotypes and misconceptions.* The participants in this study identified a number of stereotypes which they believe have served as a negative or positive motivation for global awareness. A few of the participants' comments clearly illustrate their beliefs. **Africa:** Jennifer points out "in many peoples minds, African people are primitive and uncivilized". Stacey adds "there is a general stereotype that Africa is a jungle and the people who live there run around with spears and no clothes". Melissa notes "Africa is poor, the people are all starving and

dying." Judy maintains "I do not think of Africans as civilized and updated in technology. They are always on television as African tribes, doing dances in war pants and animal skin clothes." **China:** Ann believes that "the Chinese are very intelligent". Amy said "China is a very business like society and organized. Students take school very seriously. crowded cities and busy street" **Japan:** Joan notes "the Japanese are smart, highly motivated, and trying to steal American jobs". Jackie says "the Japanese are extremely intelligent and focusing their lives on school or work". Laurel adds "the Japanese have only one predominant religion. They are mostly of short height, yellow skin and slanted eyes, and have strange customs and strange food." **India:** Jeanine notes "India is a place we think of as very secretive, religious and men being very dominant." Karen says "Indians are mean and warlike people. They are quiet and keep to themselves." **Vietnam:** Lynda points out "Vietnam is a very underdeveloped country, people still living without pipe water, electricity, indoor plumbing, etc."

3. *Stereotypes and teaching.* Cynthia's comment summarizes how stereotypes affects teaching. She said "if teachers have stereotypes of a culture, they may avoid talking about it. If they do teach about it and are biased, then they will pass incorrect ideas to the students. Once we have a stereotype, we often are not interested or feel dislike toward a group." By the nature of these comments, it is evident that stereotypes could become an unmotivating factor to people in learning about other cultures.

These comments clearly demonstrate the effects of stereotypes on global awareness. Certainly, students would be motivated to read about a culture if they have positive stereotypes of that culture. A majority of the participants in this survey had positive stereotypes of the Japanese culture. This was obvious from their comments. As a result they indicated interest in reading more about the Japanese culture. But, if the reverse is the case, as we have seen in the participants' comments about Africa, China, India, and Vietnam, the propagation of global awareness could become a difficult task.

In this study as well as the previous one, we find a corroboration in the perceptions of the participants and those who took part in the survey in 1992-1993 and 1993-1994 regarding the stereotypes of Africa. In both survey's what truly describes what the respondents know or believe to be true of Africa were "wild animals," "jungles," "hunts," "tribes," "malnutrition," "poor," "dance," "villages," "natives," etc. These are negative stereotypes which certainly can discourage students from reading about Africa. These stereotypes are neither too different from what the participants think in the case of Asia, South America, and the Middle East (Osunde, Brown and Tlou 1993). Indeed, the stereotypes of the non-western cultures of nations are not exciting or motivating. Therefore, it

could be inferred that most students will be disinterested in reading about events occurring in the non-western societies because of negative stereotypes. Misconceptions of cultures and negative stereotypes should not be allowed to flourish because they have serious consequences not only for education but cross-cultural understanding and global harmony.

Summary and Conclusion.

This study has demonstrated that students' stereotypes can influence their interest to learn about other cultures and nations. Because our present generation cannot afford to produce students who do not understand the world and its peoples, there is a need for schools to introduce necessary reforms in the curriculum to help minimize or eradicate stereotypes. Public schools should introduce programs early in the school structure to teach students about different cultures. Such a program should be designed to begin at the kindergarten level. Children should be taught early in life to appreciate the differences in peoples and cultures. It is crucial that children at all education levels be taught the uniqueness of the differences, and how these differences collectively complement each other to make our world an interesting global community. It is only when stereotypes are minimized that we can successfully attain global awareness and understanding in our schools.

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TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT TRAINING IMPLEMENTATION: A CROSS-CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

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TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT TRAINING IMPLEMENTATION: A CROSS-CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

ABSTRACT

Significant organizational cultural and structural changes are necessary to ensure Total Quality Management's successful implementation. The emphasis of total quality management globally requires consideration of the transfer of training across cultures. This paper examines whether TQM implementation can cut across international boundaries as a tool for strategic change and a process for total quality improvement.

Introduction

Total Quality Management (TQM) is espoused by many managers, administrators, CEOs and consultants in both the private and public sectors as a process for improvement of quality and productivity (Milakovich, 1991). Many view Total Quality Management as an experimental process following the tradition of MBO, PPB, ZBB and other programs used to improve management, strategy, productivity and quality (Polster and Streib, 1989; Hyde, 1992). In contrast, Vansina (1990) calls for development and implementation of TQM as an overall organizational improvement strategy. From a strategic perspective TQM will be essential for organizational survival in the 1990's. Quality must be integrated into the corporate and business level strategies and incorporated into the shared values, beliefs and patterns of behavior within the organization.

Advocates of TQM assert that significant organizational cultural and structural changes are necessary to ensure its successful implementation. Few strive to describe how this change takes place or the impact of the change on the organization. Fewer yet, attempt examine cross-cultural issues as they relate to TQM implementation. Organizations now operate within an increasingly global context. As the United States continues to move forward as a leader in management training, one element continues to be problematical. Management development training is clearly directed by culturally framed leadership expectations (Hansen & Brooks, 1994). Laurent (1986), in his international study, asserts that national cultures are the most powerful determinant of managerial assumptions. Therefore, the issue of transferring training from one culture to another arises. This paper examines whether the principles and tenets of TQM can cut across international boundaries to become a tool for strategic change and a process for improvement of quality and productivity.

Background

The primary tenets and principles espoused by Deming include: an organizational focus on the customer; continuous improvement of the production and service delivery process; prevention of variability in the process; and, quality improvement achieved through the people working within the system (Swiss, 1992). Productivity and quality improvement is a continuous process. In short, TQM is a comprehensive

system to improve the quality of products and services of an organization by involving all employees in continuously improving the work processes of the organization (FQI, 1991). As such, it represents a holistic change within the organization which requires significant worker participation and total organizational commitment. As a strategy, TQM is part program, process, and philosophy. TQM components are the driving forces behind moving an organization from a traditional, power-centralized, goal competitive entity to one that is innovative, power-equalized, and goal cooperative (Tjosvold, 1986).

Developing quality management within an organization must begin with top management commitment (Deming, 1986) and top and mid-level management must work together to achieve cultural change before anything strategic in quality can be accomplished. Changes in organizational culture require management to accept and internalize the norms and values of the new culture. This change in culture will of necessity require implementing an integrated training process for change in organizational behavior appropriate to the organizational culture (Vansina, 1990).

Culture is "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes one group or category of people from another" (Hofstede, 1993, p. 89). Business cultures and national cultures are alike in that they create belief systems to filter expectations for appropriate and inappropriate behavior. Conceptual models reflect rules that guide values, perceptions, expectations, communications, evaluations, and decision making (Hansen & Brooks, 1994). Hofstede (1980a, 1991) states that business cultures are undoubtedly influenced by societal cultures.

TQM requires a shift in the organizational understanding of appropriate versus inappropriate behavior. The expectations between the manager and the work group are altered, and new channels of communications are opened--workers previously uninvolved in decision making now find themselves expected to contribute key input to the decision-making process. As a result, TQM changes the pre-existing business culture. The influence of national culture then must be considered and factored into the implementation of TQM.

Assessing national cultural differences poses problems. The work of Dutch social scientist Geert Hofstede provides a useful multidimensional framework for the analysis of cultural differences among nations

(Bangert & Pirzada, 1992). It summarizes much more complex differences in value systems, religion, social structures, levels of development and perceptions of self, others, and the world into four dimensions. Hofstede's (1991) dimensions are:

> Power distance (PDI): "the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations . . . expect and accept that power is distributed unequally" (p. 28).
>
> Individualism (IDV): "Everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family. Collectivism, as its opposite, pertains to societies in which people . . . are integrated into strong, cohesive ingroups, which . . . protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty" (p. 51).
>
> Masculinity (MAS): "pertains to societies in which social gender roles are clearly distinct (i.e. men are supposed to be assertive, tough and focused on material success whereas women are supposed to be more modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life); femininity pertains to societies in which social gender roles overlap. . . ." (p. 82).
>
> Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI): "the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by uncertainty or unknown situations . . . , expressed through nervous stress and a need for predictability: a need for written and unwritten rules" (p. 113).

Hofstede (1993) asserts that the dimensions explain 49 percent of the measured value differences among countries. The positions of a nation on these dimensions, therefore, provide a frame of reference from which an understanding of the values, institutions, and functioning of the business culture can be understood (Bangert & Pirzada, 1992; Hofstede, 1991, 1993).

[INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE]

Table 1 shows the scores for the fifty countries and three regions Hofstede studied. A comparison of the scores for the United States and the country in question can provide a rough indication of cultural distance. For example, the table indicates what we have presumably learned from experience--that Americans and Japanese are likely to be quite different. However, even in countries that are considered geographically close, such as Mexico, or that are viewed as culturally similar, such as Switzerland, Sweden, Belgium, and France, display patterns quite different from those of the United States. Differences such as these are likely to have important strategic, operational and managerial implications.

TQM and Hofstede's Four Dimensions

Power Distance

Country index values for power distance range from 11 for Austria (small Power Distance) to 94 for

the Philippines (large Power Distance) (Hofstede, 1991). Cultures marked by small power distance, such as Canada and the United States, expect interdependence in the relationship between superior and subordinate, which results in a preference for a collaborative/ consultative management style. In the US, for example, empowerment and

participation are correlates of job involvement, compliance and satisfaction (Tjosvold, 1983; Elloy, Everett, & Flynn, 1991).

In countries with large power distances, however, subordinates and superiors have a preference for and an acceptance of unequal distribution of power. The relationship between boss and subordinate is autocratic or paternalistic in nature; employees do not disagree with people in positions of authority. Power Distance also reflects the degree of dependence inherent in relationships between individuals (Hofstede, 1991). In high power distance cultures, the relationship between subordinate and superior is one of dependence. The subordinate depends on the superior for information, instructions, and decision-making.

Advocates of TQM suggest that one essential key to using TQM for changing organizations is changing the behavior of the organization, which suggests a change in the power structure (Patten, 1992; Atkinson, 1980). For example, in high power distance cultures, communication and information exchange are generally uni-directional, from the supervisor to subordinate. Implementing TQM requires that the communication flow be bi-directional between supervisor and employee. Employees in a high power distance setting may, therefore, require additional training to adopt to such a change. The empowerment aspects of TQM also serve to reduce the power distance between supervisors and employees. This change from the traditional roles of each group may contribute to role stress and impede TQM implementation.

Individualism/Collectivism

Hofstede's second dimension deals with the relationship of the individual with society. The country index scores for Individualism/Collectivism range from 91 for the United States (highest Individualism score) to 12 for Venezuela (lowest Individualism) (Hofstede, 1991). The lower the score on the Individualism scale, the more Collectivist the society is likely to be (Bangert & Pirzada, 1992). "The vast majority of people in our world live in societies in which the interest of the group prevails over the interest of the individual"

(Hofstede, 1991, p. 50). The most important aspect of the individualism/collectivism continuum is loyalty to an in-group. Starting with membership in an extended family, people in a collectivist society look to such groups for their identity and protection. People from individualistic societies generally grow up in nuclear families and perceive of themselves as "I" as opposed to "we".

According to Hofstede, the primary emphasis of education in collectivist societies is to teach people to conform to the norms of the society. In individualistic societies, the emphasis is on learning how to learn (Hofstede, 1991). A specific element of training in collectivist societies is that individuals tend not to want to distance themselves from the group.

Some of the aspects of this dimension to consider when implementing TQM include in-groups, the reward system, and education and training. Countries that are high on the Individualism scale must focus training on team building, conflict negotiation, and consensus building processes. The reward system may be designed to incorporate individual rewards such as lapel pins for group efforts. On the other hand, countries that are high on the Collectivism scale must focus on creativity, decision making processes such as brain storming, and development of self.

Masculinity/Femininity

The third cultural dimension, Masculinity, "opposes among other things the desirability of assertive behavior to the desirability of modest behavior" Hofstede, 1991, p. 80). The Masculinity Index ranges between zero (Feminine) and 100 (Masculine). Japan, with a country index score of 95, is at the Masculine end. Sweden is at the Feminine end with a score of 5.

Hofstede (1991) attributes assertiveness, toughness and drive for material success to men, and modesty, tenderness and concern for quality of life to women. Men in Masculine societies are expected to be assertive, ambitious, and competitive and seek material success. Women, in Masculine societies, are expected to nurture and care for the quality of life, children, and the sick and the weak (Bangert & Pirzada, 1992).

Bangert and Pirzada (1992) describe Feminist societies as those with overlapping social values for both men and women. Men are not expected to be as ambitious or competitive. Feminine societies allow

men to give quality of life more importance than material success. In both Masculine and Feminine societies, the dominant values are those of men (Hofstede, 1991). Leadership in the Netherlands, for example, presupposes modesty whereas leadership in the United States demonstrates assertiveness (Hofstede, 1993).

One of TQM's basic assumptions about employees stems from McGregor's Theory Y premise. In countries that are more Feminine, the training emphasis becomes one of human relations and TQM's focus on Theory Y. For the more Masculine countries, however, TQM training places a heavy emphasis on organizational mission, goals, strategic planning, and values.

Uncertainty Avoidance

The Uncertainty Avoidance dimension reflects the society's overall tolerance for ambiguity. The higher the score, the greater uncertainty is avoided. Reliance on rules, both written and unwritten, is a means of reducing ambiguity and uncertainty in both social and business settings. Country index scores for Uncertainty Avoidance range from 8 for Singapore (lowest Uncertainty Avoidance) to 112 for Greece (highest Uncertainty Avoidance).

An Uncertainty Avoiding culture attempts to minimize the possibility of unexpected events happening usually by adopting strict codes of behavior (Bangert & Pirzada, 1992). Those with high Uncertainty scores tend to be aggressive, active, and emotional; those with low Uncertainty scores are less aggressive, more contemplative, and somewhat more tolerant of behavior that is different than their own (Bangert & Pirzada, 1992).

TQM, in as much as possible, requires the reduction of barriers and obstacles that keep processes from occurring at high-quality levels. Removal of these rules or specific barriers increase the uncertainty associated with process. TQM process analysis provides the structure necessary for countries high in uncertainty avoidance. Caution must be exercised however, as excessive regulation can, in fact, erect barriers between supervisors and employees. Rules also become obstacles to creativity.

In countries that accept uncertainty as a way of life, TQM training must center around TQM statistical processes as a means of checks and balances leading to continuous improvement. Countries that avoid uncertainty must focus on creativity and decision making processes.

Conclusion

All countries have some form of management but its meaning differs from one country to the other. It takes both historical and cultural insight into local conditions in order to understand what is meant by management in each country (Hofstede, 1993). Hofstede's four dimensions provides a tool through which it is possible to make some predictions on the way other countries' societies operate, including management processes and the kind of theories applicable to their management (1993). TQM can, in fact, be implemented across nations as long as training is adapted to cultures.

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Table 1. Hofstede's Cultural Indices (Scale 1-112)

COUNTRY/REGION	POWER DISTANCE	INDIVIDUALISM	MASCULINITY	UNCERTAINTY AVOIDANCE
UNITED STATES	40	91	62	46
Arab Countries	80	38	53	68
Argentina	49	46	56	86
Austria	11	55	79	70
Australia	36	90	61	51
Belgium	65	75	54	94
Brazil	69	38	44	76
Canada	39	80	52	48
Chile	63	23	28	86
Colombia	67	13	64	80
Costa Rica	35	15	21	86
Denmark	18	74	16	23
Ecuador	78	8	63	67
East Africa	64	27	41	52
Finland	33	63	26	59
France	68	71	43	86
Germany (West)	35	67	66	65
Great Britain	35	89	66	35
Greece	60	35	57	112
Guatemala	95	6	37	101
Hong Kong	68	25	57	29
India	77	48	56	40
Indonesia	78	14	46	48
Iran	58	41	43	59
Ireland	28	70	68	35
Italy	50	76	70	75
Israel	13	54	47	81
Jamaica	45	39	68	13
Japan	54	46	95	92
Malaysia	104	26	50	36
Mexico	81	30	69	82
Netherlands	38	80	14	53
New Zealand	22	79	58	49
Norway	31	69	8	50
Pakistan	55	14	50	70
Panama	95	11	44	86
Peru	64	16	42	87
Philippines	94	32	64	44
Portugal	63	27	31	104
Salvador	66	19	40	94
Singapore	74	20	48	8
South Africa	49	65	63	49
South Korea	60	18	39	85
Spain	57	51	42	86
Sweden	31	71	5	29
Switzerland	34	68	70	58
Taiwan	58	17	45	69
Thailand	64	20	34	64
Turkey	66	37	45	85
Uruguay	61	36	38	100
Venezuela	81	12	73	76
West Africa	77	20	46	54
Yugoslavia	76	27	21	88

Source: Geert Hofstede (1991), Culture and Organizations: Software of the Mind, pp. 26, 53, 84, and 113.

The Dynamic Impact of Union Density on Labor Productivity Across Economies

by

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I. Introduction

Recent disparities in economic growth between the United States and other nations, particularly Japan, have led economists and government officials to question whether such a trend can be reversed. This phenomenon is further substantiated by comparing the growth in labor productivity over time between the various industrialized economies. Of the nine nations considered in this preliminary study, the United States economy possessed the lowest rate of growth in labor productivity during the period from 1970 to 1992. This erosion in productivity has fueled a discussion surrounding the health of the American work ethic relative to that found in other cultures. One common conclusion in this debate is the claim that workers in the United States are not as productive as workers in other economies because of some inherent cultural complacency. It follows that industry is directly constrained by these labor market inefficiencies. Several competing arguments for this disparity in labor productivity growth have been provided in the economics literature ranging from comparative institutional characteristics to international market conditions beyond the control of individual nations. In any case, it is important to determine what factors influence labor productivity and labor productivity growth rates if reasonable solutions to economic disparities in this measure between nations are to be considered. Therefore, a brief summary of these common factors is in order before current data can be analyzed. The next section will present a summary of the competing theories concerning the causes of economic decline followed by a more detailed discussion of how labor unions influence labor productivity. Once the theoretical explanations behind labor productivity differences have been outlined, the present analysis will concentrate on existing empirical data on labor union density, labor productivity, and related economic measures of industrial production. The primary purpose of this paper is to initially determine whether differences in labor union density and organization across economies can consistently explain fluctuations in labor productivity. Therefore, the final two sections will continue by empirically analyzing the relationship between union density and relevant economic variables for each nation in the sample followed by a general conclusion.

II. Theories of Economic Growth

One factor which strongly influences economic growth and labor productivity in an economy is the general structure of domestic and international demand for goods produced. Specifically, demand for products in the international sector produced by a nation will influence that economy's production and, subsequently, labor productivity in the short-run. Kaldor (1977) uses a comparison of the British and American economies at the turn of the nineteenth century as an

analogous example to contemporary growth between the United States, Japan, and European industrial economies. Reference is made as to how the declining rate of export growth and labor productivity facing Britain at that time was simply an outcome of changing international markets beyond the control of Britain herself. Industrialization abroad inevitably meant a reduction in the British share of world markets and did not necessarily result in any type of economic failure the nation could correct. Kaldor also points to the process of import substitution and the successful exporting to tertiary markets by the German economy after 1880 and the United States after 1890 as one rationale for the higher growth rates for each country. His claim is that successful latecomers to industrialization in the nineteenth century were able to attain much higher growth rates than Britain achieved at the height of her industrial supremacy and, consequently, were able to overtake Britain in a relatively short period of time. Lewis (1978), Conrad and Meyer (1965), and Sayers (1965) all make similar claims. Therefore, the recent growth of labor productivity in Japan and many European communities relative to the United States may be a result of changing world markets rather than a disintegration of the general work ethic in the United States. Consequently, the relative decline in American labor productivity growth may be a function of international market conditions and business cycles.

Another reason for differences in labor productivity growth rates between economies may be related to the comparative level of economic development between nations. Rostow (1971) advanced a theory of industrialization in which an economy moves through five distinct stages of technological change. The first stage of Rostow's growth model is that of the traditional society. At this stage the economy is dominated by a large agricultural sector and small, labor-intensive industries. This type of economy is characterized by small firms with the majority of the labor force not yet substantially urbanized. The second stage of industrialization is characterized by the implementation of modern scientific techniques in agricultural production. In this stage of economic growth entrepreneurs must be present in society and investors are required to provide financial support for new production technologies and innovations. This process creates a surplus of labor available for industrial expansion and presumably drives the cost of labor down to facilitate economic growth at the conclusion of the second stage. The third stage of industrialization outlined by Rostow is termed the "take-off" stage of economic growth and is characterized by a steady state of economic growth at a significantly higher rate than previously observed. In general, an economy entering this stage of industrialization will witness a significant rise in the ratio of aggregate investment to national income on the order of at least ten percent. In addition, at least one significant manufacturing sector with a high growth rate must exist as well as a political and social system which actively supports the expansion of the modern manufacturing sector. The fourth stage involves the progression from the industrial revolution to a mature economy and encompasses a lengthy period of continued economic progress. Growth rates of key industrial measures are typically lower but more stable in this stage than in the previous phase. The final stage of industrialization is one of economic maturity and high-volume consumption. This type of economy is characterized by an affluent population and mass production techniques applied to more sophisticated goods and services. The basic argument linking Rostow's work to the current discussion is the claim that the United States has reached the final stage of economic maturity where growth rates are relatively stable. Rival economies are still in earlier phases of economic development and, therefore, are currently experiencing a faster rate of productivity growth. This presentation is weakened, however, by considering that the United States was not the first nation to realize the industrial revolution

and, therefore, should not exhibit the slowest growth rate in labor productivity among industrial societies if Rostow's theory is taken as given.

Another critical explanation for the relatively poor rate of productivity growth in the United States has centered on the collective failings of industrialists. In the "entrepreneurial failure" approach to this argument, entrepreneurs are unwilling to take the necessary risks of utilizing new technologies and limit their commercial activities to the established trades and conduct international trade primarily in pre-existing markets. This approach claims that American entrepreneurs failed to respond energetically to the challenge of overseas industrialization and neglected the opportunity to expand their trading base into as yet underdeveloped markets. While the entrepreneurial failure discussion was originally tailored to explain the decline of Victorian Britain, this argument is also useful when applied to the current economic condition in the United States relative to rival economies. Using nineteenth century Britain as an example, Aldcroft (1969) contends that British entrepreneurs adopted an almost cavalier attitude towards technical education and research in industry. Subsequently, the British economy had lost its technical superiority in practically every major industry to the United States and Germany by the beginning of the twentieth century. Maclean (1974) points out that British entrepreneurs also neglected overseas marketing techniques during this critical period. While the British entrepreneurial class has been the subject of a considerable volume of criticism in the economic history literature, the discussion is more useful in terms of how it relates to contemporary economic conditions. Certainly one avenue of discussion concerning the relative declining rate of labor productivity growth in the United States is directed toward examining the structure of management and the inability of American industry to effectively link research and product development. It is difficult, however, to use this line of argument to substantiate long term labor productivity differences as such a discussion would assume entrepreneurs are continually choosing a suboptimal production strategy at the aggregate level. The following section will concentrate on the rationale linked directly to the empirical work found in this paper.

III. Impact of Labor Unions on Productivity

Another argument for why differences in labor productivity growth rates across nations exist concentrates on the structure of labor organizations and collective bargaining in competing economies. Presumably, the structure of labor organization and the power of labor unions in various nations will influence the level of real wages, unemployment, and labor productivity. It is generally regarded that increased unionization in an economy or industry leads to greater labor productivity. Therefore, one possible source for differences in economic growth between nations may be an institutional difference in the structure of organized labor. It must be noted that this is a narrow discussion of one factor influencing economic development and that many other equally plausible arguments exists.

The questions concerning how labor union formation and bargaining power influence labor productivity and industrial output are not new. Since two distinct functions of unions are to raise real wages and working conditions of members and to provide them with insurance against unemployment and illness, it is of little surprise that this area is well-researched in applied labor journals. The conflicting results as to how labor unions alter labor productivity, real wages, industrial output, and the composition of worker compensation indicate that this debate has yet to be resolved. The predicted

impact which labor union formation in an economy has on labor productivity ultimately depends on the economic model employed to represent the objective functions for unions and employers in the bargaining process. While a complete analysis of how union density influences unemployment, labor productivity, and real wages is not tractable in this setting, it is important to summarize some basic facts derived in the literature.

Chamberlain (1951) represents an early attempt to measure the relative bargaining power of firms and labor organizations in the bargaining process. Unfortunately, his analysis required the subjective calculation of the implicit cost of strikes to determine the bargaining power index and his discussion, therefore, remained a theoretical argument rather than an empirical one. Another simple approach considers labor unions to display full monopoly power in the labor market. In this case, the model predicts labor unions would cause aggregate unemployment. Real wages should increase as a greater proportion of the labor force becomes affiliated with union representation, however, the general effect on productivity is ambiguous. The monopoly model of labor unions is typically rejected in favor of more complicated and realistic bargaining models.

Positive effects of labor union organization on labor productivity are usually discussed in terms of how members react to the greater security offered by the union. Presumably, the existence of labor unions induces firms to hire labor of higher quality and greater productivity. In addition, turnover rates decline for an industry facing a labor force of greater union density allowing for firm-specific training to be maintained over longer periods and for greater morale and motivation for the work force to be developed from longer-term labor attachment. Discussions considering the negative influence of labor union organization on worker productivity usually center around work rules imposed by unions or the increased cost of labor associated with increased union membership. In addition, seniority rules imposed on employers by labor unions are also discussed as an important factor in this approach. Both arguments point to how increased union membership and bargaining power impede on the firm's ability to institute technological innovations and improve economic efficiency. In order to empirically test these divergent claims, Brown and Medoff (1978) consider a cross sectional analysis using modified Cobb-Douglas production functions to estimate the impact of increased labor union density on labor productivity in American industry. Their results indicated that increased union bargaining power, measured by increased union density, had a positive effect on labor productivity. This fact, however, has not been examined across economies over time. If the positive result is robust, one would expect economies with greater unionization to possess higher growth rates in labor productivity.

Labor union strength may also influence productivity by how bargaining impacts the level of employment at the aggregate level. A few casual facts outlined in Blanchard and Fischer (1989) suggests that unions might cause an increase in the aggregate unemployment rate. In particular, there is a marked contrast between Europe and the United States over the past three or four decades. The general unemployment rate in Europe has risen since 1950 while the unemployment rate has been more stable in the United States over the same time period. Concurrently, unionization has been steadily falling in the United States while it has been stable or rising in most European countries. Both Europe and the United States experienced sharp rises in unemployment in the early 1980's. In Europe, however, unemployment remained high while falling sharply in the United States. One could attribute this to greater unionization if not for the decline of legal rights enjoyed by labor unions in Europe and low unemployment rates in some nations with the highest union density among industrial nations. The impact on real wages is also not clear. While the union wage rate should rise

significantly with greater unionization, the aggregate wage could remain the same or fall depending on the reaction of secondary labor markets.

Blanchard and Fischer (1989) provide four main dimensions in which the role of unions may vary. The impact of union formation and increased bargaining power of organized labor on unemployment, real wages, and labor productivity will presumably depend on these four factors. These dimensions are the union power within the bargaining unit, the degree to which employment variables enter the collective bargaining agreement, the level of centralized bargaining in organized labor, and the fraction of workers covered by collective bargaining agreements. Freeman and Medoff (1984) showed that union power in the United States has steadily diminished as employers have devoted more resources to opposing union organization. Neumann and Rissman (1984) examined the trends in union membership for American labor unions in the twentieth century and provide some explanation as to why union density has declined. In their study they find some support for the hypothesis that government services provide a viable substitute to what labor unions can do for workers as an explanation for why membership has declined. In addition, they study the relationship between union activity and political activity suggesting that unions should consider becoming more politically active. Typically, where unions are decentralized increased union power usually leads to unemployment.

Labor unions and firms do not typically bargain over employment. In most cases, unions bargain over wages and firms are allowed to determine the employment level. Unions do, however, negotiate work rules. The related concept of featherbedding is often discussed when economists wish to illustrate conditions when unionization leads to unemployment and decreased labor productivity. If workers negotiate an easy life for themselves with favorable crew sizes one might expect decreased labor productivity along with decreased unemployment as more workers are required to produce a given output. As a consequence, productivity growth in many countries may be a result of decreased unionization and increased control by managers of the work environment. This, in turn, would lead to increased unemployment. This could be the result if those losing union jobs are unwilling to take lower paying jobs in secondary markets. The opposite result, however, could also be a reasonable possibility. When workers effort is increased this can increase the real wages in all sectors of the economy. Therefore, it is possible to see unemployment fall as workers take nonunion jobs in response to higher real wages.

Unemployment, real wages in the economy, and labor productivity will also be influenced by the level of centralized bargaining. This is perhaps one reason why Scandinavian countries have historically enjoyed low unemployment rates. Under decentralized bargaining the bargainers take the national level of job opportunities as given and ignore effects of their own decisions upon job opportunities open to other workers. Under centralized bargaining this is no longer the case as unions are unlikely to push for wages which create unemployment and lower labor productivity. Union coverage is important for obvious reasons and is understated when using union density figures. This point will be apparent in the following section. Nevertheless, it is important to consider the different forms of bargaining conducted in the countries analyzed in this paper. Table 1 below provides a general summary outlined in Blanchard and Fischer (1989) of the bargaining structure for the nine countries used in the analysis. This provides an initial basis for comparing the economies based on labor union coverage as opposed to union density. Critical values used to distinguish labor union coverage ranges are 75 and 25 percent.

TABLE 1: BARGAINING SYSTEMS OF SAMPLE ECONOMIES

Country	Coverage	Bargaining System
Canada	Medium	Firm-level bargaining. More public sector bargaining than the United States.
Denmark	High	National bargain between labor union and employer federation. One national bargain. Strikes are not allowed at firm level. Strong labor and employer federations.
France	High	Industry-level bargains applying by law to all workers in the industry. Most pay above industry minimum. Employer confederation fairly powerful. Unions divided between four federations.
Italy	High	Industry-level bargains applying by law to all workers in the industry. Firm-level bargains supplement these. Some employer coordination with strike insurance. Unions have variable coordination.
Japan	Medium	Firm-level bargains, synchronized in Spring offensive. High coverage in large firms. Strong employer federation. Weak national union coordination.
Netherlands	High	Industry-level bargains apply by law to all workers in the industry. Strikes are not legal at the firm level. Three federations of employers and unions. Foundation of Labor proposes a general framework for pay.
Sweden	High	National bargain between labor union and employer federation. Three national bargain. Strikes are not allowed at firm level. Strong union and employer coordination.
United Kingdom	High	Some industry-level bargains. Most covered by firm-level bargains. Some coordination among workers.
United States	Low	Firm-level bargaining. No coordination with the exception of some pattern bargaining in related industries.

IV. Empirical Analysis

The previous section presents numerous given facts concerning the activity of labor unions and their predicted impact on economic growth. To begin an empirical test of these conclusions, the current analysis will concentrate on data provided from the International Monetary Fund annuals and national labor statistics for nine industrialized countries. These countries are the United States, the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, Japan, Italy, France, Denmark, Sweden, and Canada. These countries were chosen based on the availability of labor union density figures. Data was collected or calculated on union density, real wages, the unemployment rate, and labor productivity for each economy in the sample. It should be noted that labor productivity is measured as an index number setting 1970 as the base year. Therefore, while growth rates and changes in aggregate labor productivity is known, levels are not preserved in this presentation. As an initial analysis, Table 2 at the end of this section presents changes in union density, labor productivity, real wages, and unemployment rates during the period from 1980 to 1990. During the decade encompassed in the table it is not clear whether a consistent relation between these variables exists. Some nations with high union density figures, such as Sweden, exhibit rapid growth in labor productivity and real wages over the time period. The unemployment rate, however, is very low despite the high union density suggesting that the centralized feature of collective bargaining in Sweden is important. Other economies show relatively high unionization and high unemployment rates. While the relationship between unemployment and real wages is not uniform, one can see that increased union density generally leads to increased unemployment and a weak increase in labor productivity. If we compare Japan and the United States it is clear that higher union density in Japan leads to greater productivity and real wage growth, however, lower unemployment rates. One must be careful, however, when comparing labor organization in Japan to that in western economies. The method of bargaining, as pointed out by Mourdoukoutas and Sohng (1987), is much different in terms of the objectives of labor unions and the level of cooperation between firms and workers.

Some general points are immediately clear when first viewing the data available for each economy. The first result to note is that all economies from 1970 through 1992 experience growth in labor productivity except for the United States. Growth in labor productivity in the United Kingdom is somewhat smaller as the remaining countries in the sample observe a doubling in labor productivity over the time period. In order to make the analysis tractable, the discussion will concentrate purely on what impact union density has on labor productivity and the unemployment rate across economies. For the most part, real wages tend to follow labor productivity as predicted by neoclassical theory and will, therefore, be ignored at this point. In addition to simply viewing the data directly, Table 3 below provides correlation values between economic statistics. These, however, do not necessarily describe the direction of causality between economic measures. Treating unionization and the remaining measures as individual time series it is possible to test whether on causes another in a Granger sense. This implies estimation of the following equation

$$Y_t = \alpha_1 Y_{t-1} + \alpha_2 Y_{t-2} + \alpha_3 Y_{t-3} + \theta_1 X_{t-1} + \theta_2 X_{t-2} + \theta_3 X_{t-3} \quad (1)$$

An F test on the coefficients of the X terms will determine whether X "causes" Y. These statistics are provided in Table 4 below.

With the necessary statistical results available, it is now possible to summarize the impact labor union density has on labor productivity and unemployment in each economy. Sweden and Denmark exhibit a significantly higher level of unionization than the other economies in the sample. Both economies display a significantly positive relation between union density and labor productivity. Therefore, rapid labor productivity growth in these two economies may be attributed to high labor union density. Causality tests, however, do not confirm that changes in union density resulted in rapid productivity growth. Likewise, Sweden displays very low unemployment whereas higher union density significantly affects unemployment in a positive sense.

The United Kingdom and Canada exhibit nearly identical level and changes in union density over the sample period. Both show a significantly positive relation between labor union density, labor productivity, and the unemployment rate. Causality tests indicate, however, that labor productivity growth can be attributed to changes in union density for Canada but not Britain. The results on Canada display an element of feedback making it impossible to determine the initial change without further analysis.

Italy and the Netherlands present similar union densities over the sample periods and are worth comparing. Both countries display stable or slightly falling union density figures and rapid growth in labor productivity. Unemployment rates are also high for both economies. This relation is only significant, however, in the Netherlands where a negative relationship exists. It is not clear how labor productivity is affected by union density for these economies.

The French economy is somewhat interesting during this time period in that union density is relatively low and falling in a similar pattern as observed in the United States. Unlike the United States, however, labor productivity and unemployment in France are rising rapidly leading to a negative relation between union density and these economic variables. Causality tests indicate increases in union density negatively impact labor productivity. Therefore, if France was a typical example of a world economy, one would expect countries with less labor organization to grow rapidly. Union density, however, does not correctly display how union coverage in France has significantly risen over the sample period.

Japan provides similar results. It appears that increased union density causes unemployment and labor productivity to fall. This is misleading, however, as union density is not a correct measure of bargaining power by workers. The method of bargaining and coordination between workers and employers in Japan is much different than in the United States. Observing data for the United States provides a much different conclusion. Here, lower union density may be a viable reason why labor productivity growth has fallen over the sample period.

TABLE 2: UNION DENSITY AND ECONOMIC ACTIVITY, 1980-1990

Country	Average Union Density	Percent Change in Labor Productivity	Percent Change in Real Wages	Average Unemployment Rate
Sweden	91.51	31.24	10.76	2.36
Denmark	86.94	24.25	2.97	8.07
United Kingdom	51.38	23.51	7.96	9.15
Canada	48.86	31.21	2.12	9.16
Italy	38.40	55.28	11.06	10.01
Netherlands	32.28	26.11	2.65	9.57
Japan	29.16	31.61	15.27	2.45
France	18.78	35.02	16.23	9.03
United States	17.51	6.00	-5.93	7.00

TABLE 3: CORRELATION BETWEEN UNION DENSITY AND OTHER MEASURES

Country	Labor Productivity	Change in Labor Productivity	Real Wages	Unemployment Rate
Sweden	++	+	++	+
Denmark	++	+	++	++
United Kingdom	++	-	++	++
Canada	++	++	++	++
Italy	-	-	++	+
Netherlands	-	+	+	--
Japan	--	++	--	--
France	--	++	-	--
United States	++	+	++	--

TABLE 4: GRANGER CAUSALITY F-TESTS

Country	$Y/L \rightarrow U$	$U \rightarrow Y/L$	$\Delta Y/L \rightarrow U$	$U \rightarrow \Delta Y/L$	$W/P \rightarrow U$	$U \rightarrow W/P$
Sweden	0.166	1.320	0.177	0.715	0.845	3.305*
Denmark	1.061	2.278	0.182	0.124	0.513	5.058**
United Kingdom	0.580	0.752	0.184	0.333	0.402	2.875*
Canada	5.244**	7.224**	4.593**	3.305*	0.602	3.221*
Italy	0.064	0.759	0.055	0.302	12.815**	8.806**
Netherlands	1.245	0.627	1.330	0.743	0.589	1.713
Japan	0.548	5.125**	2.584	3.488*	6.579**	8.009**
France	2.058	2.657*	1.279	7.879**	1.546	0.886
United States	1.449	5.903**	3.407*	0.408	0.523	2.139

V. Conclusion

This paper represents an initial attempt to discover the role labor union organization has in determining labor productivity and economic growth. As expected, general conclusions are not entirely possible due to variations in how collective bargaining takes place in different societies. Nevertheless, while labor organization is not the only institutional factor influencing economic growth, it does appear to have a positive influence on labor productivity growth across economies when union coverage is taken into account. The impact on unemployment and real wages is less clear as much depends on the structure of labor bargaining and the reaction of secondary labor markets to union contracts. This point and an extension to developing countries remains as a further exercise. While this analysis is preliminary, it represents an important avenue of discussion typically overlooked in the literature when contemplating differences in economic growth between nations.

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MACRO FACTORS FOR DETERMINING TOTAL QUALITY

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MACRO FACTORS FOR DETERMINING TOTAL QUALITY

ABSTRACT

Total quality management requires a common objective for all the human resources including supplier, producer and customers in a system. It integrates all of the human resources in a team to provide equal opportunities of sharing work, gains and losses. Corporations and nations seeking total quality have to transfer their management to total quality management to achieve the high level of total quality.

TQM
Quality
Productivity
Management

MACRO FACTORS FOR DETERMINING TOTAL QUALITY

Introduction

The importance of quality, often known as productivity, total quality and their management, is well understood in today's competitive private and public institutions. Many governments, corporations, and public organizations, have been trying to increase their competitiveness by raising total quality. Total quality became an objective, and its management is a strategic issue for many institutions. The leaders, top managers and academicians of many organizations have been trying to acquire new knowledge, methods, tools and policies for utilizing total quality management.[1] However, the question of what determines the high level of total quality is not fully addressed.

This study focuses on the determinants of a total quality on a macro level. Specifically, total quality is analyzed within a system and its internal as well as external factors that are important for total quality are considered.

Frame of Analysis: System Approach

The system is defined as an interrelated chain of supplier, producer and customer. They are all involved in the quality of a product or a service in a way that the supplier provides the resources, while the producer develops it and the customer demands it. The quality is the desirable characteristics (price, serviceability, quantity, aesthetics, etc.) of a product or a service. It has to satisfy customers' and also suppliers' and producers' needs. The quality has measurable (time, quantity) and unmeasurable (tastes, feelings) characteristics. Therefore, quality sometimes means different things to different people. Total quality attributes all the aspects of quality. It is the sum of the qualities of interrelated parts or groups of the system.

The process of developing total quality is the management of total quality or total quality of management (T.Q.M.). It includes all the activities related to product selection, designing, development, planning, organizing, controlling, distributing and preparing human, capital, technical and other resources to generate an economic value. All of these activities must be integrated to achieve a high level of total quality.

Macro Determinants of Total Quality

Total quality of a system depends mainly on its environment including education, technology, economy, natural resources, human resources, social values (culture), government, global competition and management. The total quality also depends on the national development

(Figure 1 about here)

which includes the nation's natural resources, educational, social, political and technical institutions which are interrelated and established in a larger system (a nation). In this larger system, total quality of an individual, organization, and a nation influences each other directly or indirectly. An individual's total quality is mainly determined by the individual's qualifications and partly by the organization and nation that individuals belong to. The organization's total quality is mainly determined by the individuals that work in that organization and partly by the nation that the organization belongs to. The nation's total quality is mainly determined by its organizations and

people that work in those organizations. The higher the total quality of individuals, the higher the

(Figure 2 about here)

total quality of an organization and ultimately the higher the nation's total quality. Total quality of a nation, organization and individual may also be influenced by global factors such as competition, technology, and the economy. Therefore, the analysis of total quality should include institutional, national and global factors that are important for the development of total quality.

DEVELOPMENT OF TOTAL QUALITY

The development of total quality of a system starts with an idea of developing a product, service, technology, equipment or a knowledge, know-how, method and process that generates an economic value. Public and private institutions, as well as government, contribute in total quality development independently or interdependently. Highly developed nations like the United States, Japan and some of the Western European countries have been able to establish a high level of total quality through establishing quality institutions. These institutions developed the high level of total quality that contributed to their nation's total quality.

Total quality development is an accumulated process. It starts with the supplier as a quality of resources (raw material, equipment), continues with the producer as a quality of operations (know-how, technology and process), and ends with customers as a quality of product or service. Total quality adds up during these stages and improves continuously over time. Many factors, as mentioned earlier, play an important role in developing a high level of total quality.

Role of Education in Developing T.Q.

Education plays a very important role in developing total quality. Quality starts and grows with education. The quality of education of human resources as a supplier, producer and customer partly determines the total quality. The nations and institutions that establish high levels of total quality have high levels of education including university, secondary and elementary level education.

Education provides the necessary elements of knowledge, skills and values for total quality. General (multidisciplinary) knowledge has to be balanced with a special (functional) knowledge to establish partial as well as total quality. There is no existing rule to establish the best balance between general and the functional knowledge. However, the total quality itself indicates that the partial (functional) as well as the total (whole) knowledge are all important. They have to be integrated for the development of total quality. For example, history is a must for those who will teach history; but it is also important for those who are suppliers, producers or customers of a particular good or service. But, the depth and breadth of the history curriculum should be different for these groups. It is essential that the history curriculum should cover the general aspects of history with an objective of total quality in general. Therefore, different history curriculums should be designed for different groups (functional or divisional) instead of one curriculum for every profession.

Skill is also important for total quality. It is mainly developed by doing, but it can also be taught at school whenever possible. Knowledge should be integrated with skill to generate high level of total quality. They have to be combined, support each other, and improved through continuous education, training and retraining.

The values such as commitment, care, discipline, fairness, cooperation, unity, flexibility, responsibility, ethics and integrity are the foundation of total quality. One may have the necessary knowledge and skills for the total quality, but without the values, he/she will never be able to achieve the highest level of total quality. It is the values that make people work harder and intelligently to achieve the highest level of total quality.

Developing relevant values for total quality should start at home, continue at schools, and be utilized at work actively. The family, institution, and national cultures play an important role in developing values. They should be promoted and adopted for total quality. These values are the bases for team work, partnership, leadership, and management of total quality. Team work within and among workers, managers, leaders, and the owners of a system is influenced by these values. They establish the bases of common objectives (total quality) of the system. If they are used appropriately, they influence the job security, decision making, and sharing aspects (profit, loss) and will strengthen the trust of the team--the system. It is these values that will motivate people and determine the highest total quality of the team--family, institution and nation.[2]

Education is also important for developing total quality by providing the essential elements of the other factors of total quality including technology, economy, human resources, government and the management.

The Role of Technology in Developing T.Q.

Technology is defined as know-how, methods, inanimate power, scientific operations, skilled manpower and capital equipment that is used to produce goods and services. Total quality of goods and services depends mainly on the quality of the technology; and the quality of technology depends on the development stages of technology, which include introduction, growth, maturity and decline.[3] It is during the maturity stage that the highest level of total quality can be achieved. During these stages, the improvements in techniques, knowledge and operations are exhausted. Increase in labor and material input per output reach a stable point, and all elements of the production process become relatively standardized. New entrants may offer closely substitutable products with low product differentiation. As competition increases from the new entrants, prices become highly elastic and income elasticity becomes low. In this way, products become widely known, sales reach peak volume, and the highest level of total quality can be attained. Although there are no major comparative technological advantages at this stage, total quality may still be increased due to relevant economic conditions, availability of natural resources, skilled manpower, and the management style.

The Role of Economy in Developing T.Q.

Total quality development depends partly on the amount and intensity on the demand. Higher and more urgent demand will tend to generate rapid technological development and the quality of the products or services. The domestic demand increases mainly through new employment and new income. The income causes a corresponding increase in consumption which creates further demand for quality products or services. The new income also generates new savings which will be invested for the new demand. This will further increase employment and income. Consequently, the consumption and savings increase interdependently causing economic growth. Thus, the circular, self-generating process between technology, employment, and income causes an accumulative effect through savings and a multiplier effect through investment on the general economy. This process is often called a circular accumulated causation or a dynamic economic growth. The introduction of this process into the economy is

the essence of a high level of economic growth and total quality.

The new technologies demand new skills and high quality human resources including scientists, engineers, managers, and skilled workers and new research and development institutions. The educational efforts at every level increase and help to develop the new technologies. Thus, the high level of education, research and development activities and technologies develop interdependently to increase the total quality of a product or services.

Although the domestic demand is essential for total quality products or services, trade may play an important role in developing a high level of total quality by influencing its supply and demand factors. Trade accelerates technological and economic growth by providing the means of acquiring foreign technologies, as well as opportunities to generate capital and demand for economic growth. However, it is the quality of products and services that establishes the main comparative advantage for the international trade.[4] Therefore, the total quality is a cause and result of the trade which provides opportunities for further technological and economic growth.

The natural resources including land, raw materials, capital and labor which are essential for technological and economic, development play an important role in total quality development. The natural resources increase total quality by providing the relevant supply and demand factors for new technologies and economic growth. However, the natural resources have to be managed effectively to generate major advantages for the development of total quality.

The Role of Human Resources in Developing T.Q.

The human resources including worker, manager, leader and owner are the keys to the management process. They provide all the technical and behavioral aspects of total quality as technologists (scientists, engineers and technicians) and managers. Therefore, all the human resources at every level should be included in total quality management.

The present management practices which give the main authority to a few people or a small group including president and vice presidents (often called top managers) may not achieve the high level of total quality, but instead achieve only partial quality. Top managers often make the decisions for their own interests and for the interests of the owners and the members of the boards. Their interests such as high income and high profits are often given the greatest priority. The employee interests such as high wages are a low priority. Job security is solely determined by top managers. Because of the high income and profit motives, many people lose their jobs, and others that work in uncertainty do not trust top management.

Inequality of management authority takes place in all other decisions regarding new product development, technology, selection, new plants, work schedules and planning. Some portions of the work force have virtually been used like machines. Their work is integrated in total quality, but their interests and concerns are left to the mercy of the top management. Their interests are not represented fully.

In fact, employees' and top managers' interests are often in conflict. This type of management which is the common practice in many private and public organizations in the United States cannot generate the highest level of total quality. High level of quality requires total (people) management.

Total (People) Management for Total Quality

Total management means management by all the people who work in that system. It is the people's management not a partial--a group (few) management. All the people who work in the system are included in strategic management decisions. The people work as a team, but also manage like a team. The members of each team bond to each other like a good family, and each team bonds to the others like a larger family--the system. The member of the system as a president, vice president, manager and worker should care for each other and the system's interests. They trust and respect each other and work for the common objective of the system.

The vertical managerial authority is shifted from top down to the horizontal authority which includes all the members of the team. There are no authority differences among the members of this team. Every member participates in major decisions including developing objectives, planning, employment and technology. Everyone in the system is included in ownership, and they share the gains and losses.

The communication and the coordination in the system are provided with a network directly or indirectly through the team leaders. Team leaders at every level act like one of the members and coordinate all the operations and communicate to the other team leaders for related matters.

Job security is provided for everyone by avoiding layoffs based on profit or cost cutting objectives. Human resources are considered a main source of the production system, and the democratic principles are the main guidance of people's management. People's management provides trust, and establishes a common objective for everyone in the system. It generates unity in the system (like one for all and all for one). This kind of management can motivate the human resources fully and achieve the highest level of total quality.

Some organizations like Hewlett-Packard and Eli Lilly have practiced some of the elements of this type of management style and have never laid off employees, achieving a high level of total quality. Many of Japan's large organizations have also been practicing lifetime employment, group decision-making and close human relations which show great success in achieving high total quality. These examples indicate that the people's management is the key to a high level of total quality. The organizations and nations should transfer their management practices to a people's democratic-based management style to achieve the highest level of total quality.

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Figure 2: Interdependency of Total Quality

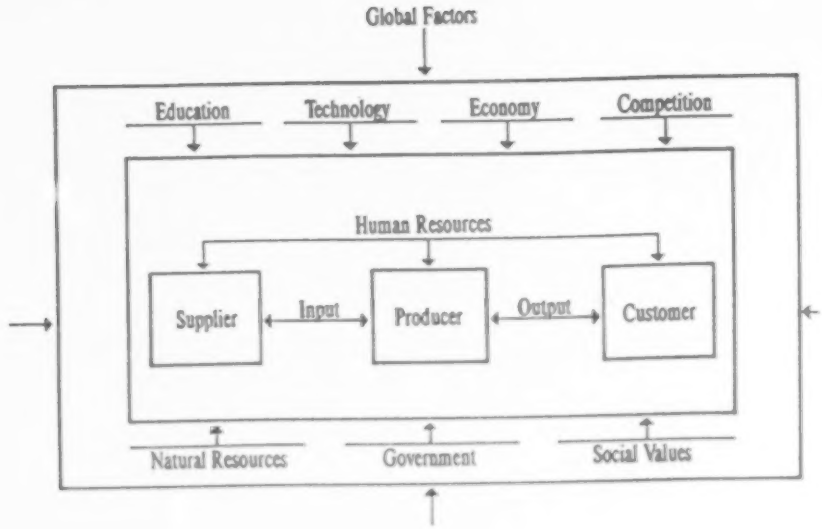

Figure 1: Macro Determinants of Total Quality

PERSPECTIVES IN GLOBAL EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION

People of all nationalities, races, and cultures are now sharing finite space on a planet which astronomer Neil Armstrong described as "a little wet ball" as he peered at the earth from outer space. From his vantage point, there are no borders, no mountain or sea so large as to serve as an insurmountable physical boundary.

Burn (1980) defines the problems of the '80s (and beyond) as international--cutting across national and international boundaries, threatening all races, and calling as never before for global cooperation toward global solutions. The wisdom of Burn's comment can be seen in the medical field as AIDS moves relentlessly--respecting no country border. Drugs are clearly a world problem, although handled in different ways by different countries. Global economy also no longer respects boundary lines. When the stock market dipped in October of 1987, American investors took great interest in events on the London and Tokyo stock exchanges. Corporations in America are concerned with their foreign markets, just as Asian and European countries watch the U.S. sales figures. Superimposed on these global issues are the new realities of communication: satellites, fax, and wireless phones. As global concerns increasingly affect all of us, the critical word in Neil Armstrong's phrase about the world becomes "little."

What does all this mean for education? It is ironic that the inward-turning in American society is growing. Americans have a

> ....in spite of stupendous achievement of Western civilization in the realm of science and technology, for its balanced and harmonious development, it still lacks the beauty of the Greek, the durability of the Chinese, the profound mysticism of the Hindu, and the essentially human and social contents of the African civilization, including its great zest for life and romantic freshness. (p.25)

Therefore, the need for a new philosophy of education is one of the vital components at the heart of the problem. The advocates of Global Education (Brameld, 1970; Mitchell, 1967; Grim, Sobel, & Mitchell, 1977; Dewey, 1914; Kandal, 1955; Taylor, 1964; Sobel, 1975; Fraber, 1970; and others) submit that Global Education should be labeled as a new philosophy of education. This education is needed not only to understand mankind's interdependency in the world of today, but also to design for the betterment of tomorrow (Taylor, 1964).

Because of the rapid technological developments which have had the effect of shrinking the world by making travel and communication very fast, the purpose of this paper is to re-evaluate the idea of Global Education in the environment of the 1990's. This paper will focus on the following points:

1. Historical Background of Global Education (the chronological development and the need for Global Education);
2. Definition of Global Education (the purpose and scope of Global Education);
3. Sociology of Global Education (the concepts and the problems associated with the concepts); and

in existing universities and individual opposition by governments thwarted the creation of such a university.

After the Second World War, national universities became more international because of exchange programs and international studies centers. The meeting in late 1945 of a preparatory committee in London to plan the development of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) gave new birth to the idea of a world university. In 1953, a number of people from Europe and the United States met in Zurich and formed the International Society for the Establishment of a Global University with headquarters in Stuttgart. In May 1958 the society commented on its plan and what it considered its *sine qua non*:

> **The plan arose from the awareness that all, and particularly the political and economic endeavors towards peaceful cooperation among the nations, can be truly successful only if the essential condition of mutual trust is created and maintained by intellectual and spiritual forces (Zweig, 1967, p.92).**

Others involved in the idea of a Global University were: The Committee for the Promotion of an International University in America, founded by William Heard Kilpatrick in 1960, and the Federation of American Scientists' Committee for a United Nations University, founded by Professor Evan Kane in 1958. Many prominent leaders supported the idea of a Global University, including Albert Einstien, Bertrand Russel, Dwight Eisenhower, and others. Addressing the International Conference on Education in Stockholm in 1962, Eisenhower spoke explicitly in favor of a global university (Wiskari, 1962).

II. DEFINITION OF GLOBAL EDUCATION

Global Education should not be confused with the concepts of comparative education or international education. These forms may be two elements of World Education but cannot be used as synonyms for it. The advocates of Global Education maintain that comparative education implies geography or anthropology about the world. International education usually implies study abroad or of foreign trade, customs, international agreements and treaties. Global Education includes similar studies, but in addition, focuses on social change. Global Education has an essential element, a mission; its mission is the creation of a unified world. It advances global problem-solving for the betterment of mankind (Zweig, 1967).

World Education must delve into any and all human questions (Farber, 1970). The individual student should be allowed to be inquisitive, to question as far as capabilities will allow. The goal of such education must be to help people become an integrated whole in the fragmented, diversified world. According to Taylor (1964):

> **World Education is the study of the world as an entire social system in which each society and culture plays a part, and each can be seen to possess a set of problems and characteristics common to all. The purpose in learning about the world system is to discover and to affirm peaceful cooperation for common ends. (p.7)**

Mitchell, Grim, and Sobel (1977) state:

> **The objective of education lies in producing intellectually autonomous minds capable of refined judgement and discernment and an educational**

Brameld, thirty years ago, wrote that American culture is splitting apart, creating divisions and preventing mutual understanding. There are four major manifestations of this. First, culture has caused a conflict between self interest and social interest. Individuals are locked into an economic system based on economy of scarcity; therefore individuals view each other as enemies because they are all in competition. Individual goals tend to be acquisition of power and possessions. Man is struggling to be both "for himself" and "against himself." Although this struggle manifests itself psychologically, the etiology is profoundly cultural (Brameld, 1956, p.43).

Secondly, because of the crisis of culture, there exists a separation between the traditional religious views of reality and the new scientific understanding of reality (for an example, creation versus evolution). Instead of integrating these two views or retaining the most worthwhile part of both, people have let them exist separately at the same time. This adds uncertainty and confusion to the individuals who are no longer sure of what to believe (Mitchell, 1967).

Thirdly, Myrdal (1944) notes that "equality of all" which he labels as "democratic rhetoric," does not correspond to the realities of life. For example, many people are impoverished and most minority groups are given inferior status and treatment; yet, we maintain the illusion of equality of opportunity. Legislative efforts to provide equal privileges for blacks and other minorities indicate that inequality is by no means universally supported.

1. Searching for basic and absolute truth;
2. Placing a high degree of importance on seeking knowledge;
3. Modifying the reflective thinking process through new pragmatic scholarship, consisting of learning to recognize problems, defining them, and using a disciplined search for intelligent answers; and
4. Reconstruction.

Perennialism

The central aim of Perennialism is the search for eternal truth, which is seen as changeless, defying time and space. Central to this point of view is the static and absolute nature of knowledge. Once knowledge becomes a part of the curriculum, it is stuck and becomes an end in itself. Russel Kirk (1955), a prominent advocate of Perennialism, states:

> **The conservative mind is suffused with veneration. Man and nations...are governed by natural laws...An eternal chain of duty links the generations that are dead, and the generation that is living now, and the generations yet to be born. We have no right, in this brief existence of ours, to alter irrevocably the shape of things, in contempt of our ancestors and the right of posterity. (pp.41-42)**

Perennialism, like Global Education, stresses the search for basic and absolute truth. However, truth, according to the advocates of Global Education, should be seen in a relativistic, not absolutist, framework. Though Global Education is influenced by Perennialism, the Global Education movement substitutes a search for emerging concepts relative to the present day (Sobel, 1975).

develop the whole person. Therefore, education at any age should be a natural growth involving physical, mental, moral, social, and spiritual experiences adapted to the health, interest, and abilities of all people (Kaufman, 1965). Progressive education, then, in John Dewey's (1910) meaning, comprises the continual reconstruction of experience--experience embracing thinking and doing.

Two key methods which the theory of Global Education borrows from the Progressivist movement are: (a) a modification of the reflective thinking process; and (b) the problem-solving approach. Dewey's (1910) analysis of the thinking process replaces Aristotole's formulation of the thinking process with a pragmatic approach to practical and universal applicability (Sobel, 1975).

Dewey emphasized that education is the continual reconstruction of experience, which consists of learning to recognize the problems, of defining them, and of using a disciplined search for intelligent answers. Dewey's five-step thinking process is as basic to the philosophy of Global Education as Aristotole's logic is basic to the subject matter approach to Essentialism (Sobel, 1975). This requires the use of imagination in seeking alternatives, in judging various courses of action, and in experimenting persistently with possible solutions. This method is geared toward anticipating problems before they exist in order that problems can be avoided or more easily solved. This has great applicative value for Global Education advocates who seek creative solution to the world's problems.

In summary, Global Education advocates emphasize that in the crisis-culture there must be rethinking of Dewey's analysis of the reflective thinking process in view of today's society (Brameld, 1956). Educators who believe in Global Education need to search for emerging concepts that might be tools to solve problems facing the crisis-culture. Dewey's model involves purposeful, self-directed growth which occurs when a person encounters an obstacle; hence, it is present-centered. People declare war or refuse to fight. Reconstructionists look ahead and try to get to the bottom of a problem before the decision to fight or not to fight becomes an issue. In sociological terms, is precisely what the advocates of Global Education want to accomplish.

IV. PHILOSOPHY OF GLOBAL EDUCATION

Philosophy has been defined as the pursuit of wisdom or a search for general understanding of values and reality by chiefly speculative rather than observational means (Webster, 1977). The way to approach philosophy is by getting an overview of its major problems or questions and corresponding areas of inquiry. This is a systems approach. When considered in this way, philosophy reveals itself as having a system and order of its own (Butler, 1951). The great problems of philosophy are the questions involving reality, knowledge, and value, questions which can be grouped under the following headings:

Ontology: What is reality?

Global Education theorists place a central importance in the function and study of history. Brameld (1956) asserts:

> ...(1) men become what they are largely because of the characteristics of the historical period in which they live; (2) every period emerges from the preceding periods and leads into later ones in such a way as to be influenced by the former and to influence the latter; (3) there is not metaphysical design which determines the stages of history through his thought and struggles; and (4) history has no ingrained purpose, no preordained goal, for the course it takes and the goals it attains depend wholly upon the choices made and the failures and successes experienced by men. (pp.60-61)

History is interpreted as group struggle. Metaphysicists' efforts are placed in order to see complex threads tying events together. However, this particular study of history places a premium on analyzing patterns so as to avoid mistakes in the future. There is no set of final rules; rather, the past must be seen in the light of what the future might hold. It is imperative that people involved in Global Education learn how to study history in order to make today and the future a better world.

Global Education theorists do not go into detail in explaining the philosophical concept of logic. They rely heavily on the pragmatic approach of Dewey's (1910) steps in the reflective thinking process. Dewey said that the old scholarship, defined by Aristotole and consisting of the mastery of knowledge, is different indeed from the new Pragmatic scholarships consisting of learning to recognize a problem, of defining it, and of using a disciplined search for intelligent answers. This approach, already discussed in the previous section, requires the use of imagination to seek alternatives. One needs to judge various

Therefore, knowledge involves change in the whole being, feelings, attitudes, ideas, formations, and ways of behaving alone in relation to others. Knowledge entails the mastery of facts and theories, while awareness is what has happened when an individual has been motivated in a rational and human way (Mitchell, Grim, and Sobel, 1977).

Axiology

The Global Education theorists disdain serious values speculation on the bases of ethics, religion, and social affairs. They claim that these concepts are only confusing and contradictory. They advocate intrinsic and instrumental values. They not only agree with Dewey but also claim that he was the one who made the distinction between the two. According to Dewey (1916):

> **Intrinsic values are not objects of judgement, they cannot (as intrinsic) be compared or regarded as greater or less, better or worse. They are invaluable; and if a thing is invaluable, it is neither more nor less so than any other invaluable. But occasions present themselves when it is necessary to choose, when we must let one thing go in order to take another. This establishes an order of preference, a greater and less, better and worse. Things judged or passed upon have to be estimated in relation to some third thing, some further end. With respect to that, they are means or instrumental values. (p.238)**

Advocates of Global Education apply the above concept of values to those of the Global Education philosophy. Mitchell, Grim, and Sobel (1977) comment:

> **All values whether possessed by the simplest organism, an amoeba, or the most complex organism, a human being, involve a choice. The amoeba, for instance, in reaching out for food, instinctively places a value judgement on the foreign substances with which it makes contact. The amoeba proceeds**

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Global Education is a new philosophical movement with strong roots in American Pragmatism. The advocates believe that the world is in a crisis-culture. The deliberate changing of the environment for human betterment calls for an educational revolution. The world can be save by educators. Without the impact of Global Education, in its fullest sense, on the cultures, feelings, ideas, and attitudes of the world's people, there is no possibility of uniting mankind or solving the problems of war.

The philosophical movement of Global Education has been influenced by the following educational philosophical theories:

1. The present culture is failing man. Educationally, one should insist upon a resurrection of the premises and proposals of the Perennialist orientation (searching for truths throughout the world);
2. In settling upon the choices of education, there is a need to identify with the kind of educational theory and practice that could be called the Essentialist orientation (placing a high degree of importance on seeking knowledge);
3. Neither lagging too far behind nor moving too far ahead of the role of change in the present culture, people should choose in education the programs and doctrines of the Pragmatic orientation (rethinking of the thinking process);

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WELFARE REFORM AND AMERICA'S CHILDREN

by

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ABSTRACT

Welfare reform has become a dominant public policy initiative of the 1990s in the United States. The potential impact of conservative, liberal, and moderate reform proposals on the well-being of America's children are examined and explored within the international community of industrialized western democracies.

Welfare Reform and America's Children

Dale L. Sultzbaugh

In 1992, 14.6 million American children lived in poverty, more than in any year since 1965. Eight million of these poor children, living in more than five million families, subsisted on AFDC (Aid to Families with Dependent Children) welfare checks whose monthly median for a family of three was $367 in 1993, (Children's Defense Fund, 1994; Schneider, 1994). In comparison with other western industrialized nations, America's efforts to lift its low-income children out of poverty through government benefits is shameful and appalling. From 1984-1987, a mere 8.5% of low-income children in the United States were lifted out of poverty through government programs, while countries like Canada, Australia, the United Kingdom, France, the Netherlands, Germany, and Sweden lifted from 41% to 80% of their low-income children out of poverty through government benefits (Smeeding, 1991).

The Social Security Act of 1935 created both Social Security for America's elderly and AFDC welfare for America's poor children. Pruger (1992) notes the stunning contrasts between these two social programs from the liberal Roosevelt Era:

> The former is widely regarded as the crowning accomplishment of our welfare state; the latter, its greatest failure. Every expansion of the social insurances is celebrated; every increase in the welfare rolls is taken to mean that something is very wrong....One builds the social bond, the other weakens it. When poll takers ask, "Should we help the poor?" every segment of the American public answers in the affirmative. When asked, "Should 'welfare be increased?" the response is equally strong---in the negative.

Since the 1960s the legitimacy of AFDC welfare has been eroded by several significant factors:

1. In the last thirty years AFDC recipients have no longer been white, widows, and orphans, but disproportionately black; single parents---never married, deserted, separated, or divorced; and illegitimate children.
2. During the 1960s the number of families on AFDC almost tripled from 800,000 to 2.2 million, and total payments surged from $1 billion to $5 billion. From 1989 to

1993 there was a dramatic 33% increase in AFDC families at a cost of $22 billion to the federal government and another $22 billion to state governments.

3. Women with young children have massively increased their participation in the paid work force from 11% in 1948 to 57.1% in 1988; and for divorced women, the figure rose to 70.1% in 1988. Thus, it is untenable to exempt AFDC welfare mothers from required participation in the work force.

4. Consensus has been reached that enmeshment in poverty and welfare requires multi-faceted solutions, instead of the simple solution of sending out higher check benefits.

5. Ideological differences between classical conservatives and classical liberals have been articulated more sharply in the last decade (Pruger, 1992).

Today, a consensus has emerged among most Americans that AFDC welfare is a program that is "...bad for the taxpayer, injurious to its clients, and offensive to prevailing civic values" (Pruger, 1992).

This paper examines conservative, liberal, and moderate-pragmatic ideological proposals to reform America's welfare system, as well as their impacts upon America's eight million poor children who rely each day on AFDC for their well-being.

Classical Conservative Perspectives

Abolishing AFDC welfare benefits entirely has been the major proposal of such classical conservative ideologists as Charles Murray (Losing Ground, 1984), a welfare expert with the America Enterprise Institute. He believes that welfare mires poor women and children in dependency; promotes teenagers to have illegitimate babies without a husband, a high school education, or job; and perpetuates an intergenerational "cycle of poverty." In the absence of govern- mental AFDC welfare, private sector work opportunities would greatly increase; a cultural value change---restigmatizing unwed motherhood and reinforcing responsible parenthood---

would occur; and some children living with a very large number of rotten mothers "...would be better off in orphanages than with (their) single welfare mothers" (Kaus, 1994; USA Today, 1994).

On April 26, 1994, Representative Jim Talent of Missouri and Senator Lauch Faircloth of North Carolina introduced a radical conservative welfare reform bill in Congress. Their bill would cut off all AFDC, food stamps, and housing assistance to unmarried mothers under age 21. By 1998, the cut-off age limit would raise to 25. The projected $80 billion saved over the next five years would be converted into grants paid directly to the states, which would come up with their own plan to care for poor AFDC children such as groups homes and improved adoption services. The bill also requires work of all food stamp recipients and most AFDC fathers in two-parent families; and marriage is encouraged through a $1,000 tax credit for welfare parents who get married (Press-Enterprise, 1994).

Monumental threats to the health and well-being of America's eight million AFDC children will emerge if radical conservative welfare reform legislation succeeds in dropping AFDC parents from the welfare rolls when jobs or alternative means of support for their children are not available. Millions of America's children and their families will be pushed into poverty and suffer its cruel hardships and costly effects. For example, a Kansas state health department study found that "...poor children are five times as likely as nonpoor children to die from infections and parasitic disease, four times as likely to die from drowning or suffocation, three times as likely to die from all causes combined, and twice as likely to die from car accidents and fires" (Children's Defense Fund, 1994). A study published by the Reagan Administration's Department of Education found that "...every year spent in poverty adds two percentage points to the chances that child will fall behind in school" (Children's Defense Fund, 1994). Abnormally stunted growth and physical wasting in poor children are linked to low intelligence test scores, learning problems, and behavior problems. Poor children are more susceptible to lead poisoning which can cause brain damage and behavior problems leading to school failure, dropout, and delinquency. Additionally, poor parents who can't afford stimulating toys, books, or school supplies; good quality child care; and

decent, stable housing outside crime-ridden neighborhoods experience emotional stress and appear less effective in guiding and nurturing their children. (Children's Defense Fund, 1994).

Classical Liberal Perspectives

Blocking mandatory work requirements for AFDC parents and increasing AFDC cash grants and support services have been the central welfare reform initiatives of classical liberal ideologists. During the 1980s, the Reagan Administration resisted spending any new federal money on welfare, wanted to return the AFDC welfare program to the states for administration and funding, and advocated the Community Work Experience Program (Workfare) be mandatory for all AFDC parents. Classical liberal proponents believe AFDC mothers are already working by raising their children, and taxpayers should recognize the importance of their in-home job by providing much higher AFDC cash grants, decent housing, adequate nutrition, accessible health care, and quality child care. Work incentives, education, and training should also be provided for those AFDC mothers who choose to enter the work force outside the home.

In their opposition to mandatory work requirements for AFDC parents, liberals cite the failure of previous work-training programs; the meanness of requiring poor parents to take the tedious, low-paying, dead-end jobs without benefits; and when good jobs are available, a cheaper, "second class" workforce displaces regular salaried employees (Baum, 1992).

Monumental problems continue to afflict the health and well-being of America's eight million AFCD children because of classical liberal welfare reform proposals:

1. Liberals are right in pointing to the sharp decline in AFDC cash benefits. Since 1970 AFDC welfare benefits have shrunk by nearly $300 per month in inflation adjusted dollars--- from $673 in 1970 to $367 in 1993. The 1993 median AFDC monthly cash grant to a family of three was $583 short of the federal poverty threshold of $947 (Children's Defense Fund, 1994). However, classical liberals are wrong in their proposed welfare reform solution to the problem of shrinking AFDC cash benefits. As Baum (1992) states:

> For 20 years they (liberals) have rallied behind welfare bills that would raise AFDC benefits "with no strings attached." In short, more money, no requirements. (Do not be mean.) This strategy failed throughout the 1970s and 1980s, no matter which party occupied the White House or controlled the Congress.... The "more money/don't be mean" formula has been a disaster for AFDC recipients. While liberals have busily opposed any work requirements, AFDC families have gotten a lot poorer.

2. By opposing mandatory work requirements, classical liberals have denied AFDC parents both the greater self-esteem which comes from working to support their families and the better role models for their children of society's basic values of work, individual parental responsibility, and self-sufficiency (Baum, 1992).

By 1988 classical liberal welfare reform tenets became politically untenable. In developing the Family Support Act of 1988, the first major reform of the AFDC welfare program in 20 years, there was insufficient classical liberal support, even among Democrats, to increase AFDC cash benefits. Additionally, a mandatory work requirement for AFDC mothers with children age 3, with a state's option to lower the age to 1, was included in the FSA. It is also interesting to note that six years later, in 1994, three current classical liberal legislative bills have failed to garnish sufficient support in Congress: a single payer health-care plan; an increase in the federal minimum wage; and the $1,000 refundable child tax credit--- a universal, "social security," entitlement grant for all American children.

Moderate/Pragmatic(Neo-conservative/Neo-liberal)Perspectives

After 20 years of failed attempts, Congress finally passed the Family Support Act of 1988, which provides a new ideological and political foundation for AFDC welfare reform. The classical liberal belief --- that government benefits ought to go to poor families because they needed them

--- has been replaced with a moderate/ pragmatic ideological tenet: reciprocal responsibility between beneficiaries and the government. As Baum (1992) states:

> The FSA brought moderate liberals and conservatives together by asserting that obligation is a two-way street. The government is obligated to care for AFDC families. Able-bodied welfare parents are equally obligated to try to become self-sufficient. Specifically, absent parents (usually fathers) must try to pay child support and custodial parents (usually mothers) must try to prepare for and take jobs.

Thus, the Job Opportunities and Basic Skills (JOBS) training program of the FSA included the following provisions (Baum, 1992):

1. AFDC parents are required to take available bona fide jobs, and during the first year of employment, medicaid and child care will be provided.
2. Every state is required to include a broad array of mandated work, education, training, and work experience options.
3. Twenty percent of the nonexempt AFDC caseload in each state must be participating in JOBS in each state by 1995.
4. Beginning January 1, l994, every state is required to deduct child support payments from the wages of the non-custodial parent.

Despite the landmark in welfare reform which the Family Support Act of 1988 represents, its success has been very limited due to its meager funding level of only $3.3 billion for the last five years.

Utilizing the FSA as a foundation, some states have implemented moderate/pragmatic welfare reforms which positively impact upon AFDC children and their families. For example, Virginia instituted a new program effort to work with employers to train and hire AFDC parents for jobs between $15,000 - $18,000 a year, and in four counties AFDC families can now receive three years of work transitional medicaid and child care benefits, instead of the one year provided by the FSA of 1988. Illinois, Vermont, and Connecticut have instituted significant work incentives for AFDC parents, allowing them to keep more of their earnings when they work (Children's

Defense Fund, 1994). For four years, in two counties, Wisconsin has given parents who fall behind in child support a choice: pay up or do community work service for sixteen weeks, attend parenting classes, spend time with their children, and look for a job. Those who refuse or backslide may be jailed (Press-Enterprise, 1993). And in late 1993, Virginia piloted a child support insurance program in one locality that guarantees child support payments to AFDC families leaving the welfare rolls for employment (Children's Defense Fund, 1994). This initiative is patterned after the National Commission on Children's child support insurance proposal that guarantees a yearly federal grant---$1,500 for the first child, $1,000 for the second child, and $500 for each additional child-- to a family when child support cannot be collected (National Commission on Children, 1991). A 1993 evaluation of the Child Assistance Program (CAP) in seven New York Counties demonstrates the gains which AFDC families make toward self-sufficiency when they are helped to maximize their income by allowing them to keep much more of their earnings than the AFDC program does, by providing child care help to those who need it, by offering on-site job development, and by improving child support enforcement services. Caseworkers with small caseloads help AFDC families utilize CAP benefits until a family's income rises to 150 percent of poverty level (Children's Defense Fund, 1994).

Lastly, we consider the moderate-pragmatic AFDC welfare reform plan of the Clinton Administration, scheduled to be released mid-1994. Both neo-conservative and neo-liberal components comprise the anticipated plan which is expected to cost over $9 billion. Four major components will probably comprise the plan:

1. Make work pay. One element to accomplish this goal is already in place with the 1993 expansion of the Earned Income Tax Credit. By 1996 a family of four making the minimum wage of $8,840 a year will be eligible for a refundable tax credit of $3,370 instead of the current $1,998. Universal health - care coverage is a second element, while expanded child care would be a third element.
2. Dramatically improve child support collection. Currently, child support is a "hollow promise." Only slightly more than half of custodial mothers had child

supports orders in 1990; of those with court orders, half receive either no support at all or less than the full amount due (Children's Defense Fund, 1994). Tens of billions of dollars in child support go uncollected each year. Three elements to accomplish this goal are: require single parents to establish paternity at the hospital, at the time of birth when 70% of the fathers are present; utilize the IRS to collect child support from parents who refuse to pay; and provide a minimum child support insurance grant to the custodial parent, similar to the National Commission on Children's 1991 proposal, when support is uncollectable from the non-custodial parent.

3. Provide more education and training to help AFDC parents prepare for work while they are collecting their checks. This goal could be accomplished by providing federal grants to the states and requiring the states to implement the JOBS provisions of the FSA of 1988.

4. A Two-year cut off limit for receiving AFDC checks. An incremental phase-in of this goal will be proposed due to the high cost of both preparing AFDC parents for work and creating public (governmental) subsidized jobs where private sector jobs are unavailable. The cut off limit will probably be applied to new AFDC parents age 25 or younger. They would be required to go to work after two years or be dropped from the AFDC rolls.

5. For teenage mothers, mandatory education and training, living with parents in order to qualify for AFDC, and other proposals aimed at reducing the birth rates among single, young welfare mothers. Two year studies in New Jersey and Illinois demonstrate higher rates of school attendance and employment upon implementation of these mandates (Children's Defense Fund, 1994; Philadelphia Inquirer, 1993; Philadelphia Inquirer, 1994).

In conclusion, major new gains for all America's 14.6 million poor children and their families can be realized through a moderate/ pragmatic (neo-conservative/neo-liberal) ideological approach to AFDC welfare reform. New ways to bolster family income and ameliorate the suffering hardships and high costs of childhood poverty are being proposed. In the remaining years of the Clinton Administration, America is presented with the opportunities to lay a strong foundation for effective AFDC welfare reform, dramatically strengthen its child support system, and ensure that parents who work are rewarded and can lift their children out of poverty As we enter the twenty-first century, the threat also exists that America will continue the pattern of the first four years of the 1990s and add 2 million of its children to the poverty rolls every four years.

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ACCESSIBLE MENTAL HEALTH SERVICES FOR PRE-SCHOOL FAMILIES IN RURAL AMERICA

by

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ABSTRACT

Families living in rural America often experience much difficulty in accessing mental health services. Head Start, a pre-school program for children from low-income familes, recently incorporated the services of a mental health consultant to identify children experiencing difficulties in their social, emotional, and cognitivie development. This paper discusses the various mental health services provided to Head Start children and their families who live in several rural counties in Pennsylvania, USA.

Accessible Mental Health Services for Pre-school Families in Rural America

Judith Matter Sultzbaugh

Head Start was begun in 1965 as a federally funded, comprehensive child development program. Through the provision of educational, health, social services, parent involvement and disability services, the program has been a symbol of hope to a better life for more than 13 million low-income children and their families (Advisory Committee on Head Start Quality and Expansion).

The child's family, according to Head Start philosophy, is the principal influence on his/her life; however, the community must also be involved in meeting the child's cognitive and intellectual development, physical and mental health needs, and nutritional needs. If these needs are met, then the child is better able to develop social competence to deal with the present environment as well as later responsibilities of school and life.

Head Start is a free pre-school program for low income-eligible children, ages 3 to 5. Ten percent of the enrollment capacity is reserved for children with disabilities: health impairment, speech or language difficulties, learning disabilities, visual impairment, traumatic brain injury, emotional/behavioral disorders, mental retardation, autism, hearing impairment, orthopedic impairment, and other disabling conditions (Bensen, 1994).

To be eligible for Head Start a child must be 3 years old by September 1, must not be eligible for kindergarten and must meet the income guidelines set by the U. S. Department of Health and Human Services (Bensen, 1994).

A Head Start program that serves two rural Central Pennsylvania counties is the Columbia/Sullivan Head Start program. According to the Director, Gail Menapace (1994), in 1993-94 Columbia County had approximately 3,747 children ages 0 to 5, with 13% of this population living below the federal poverty level. Columbia County's Head Start serves approximately 70% of those children who are eligible for the program. There are several program sites. At the Bloomsburg site approximately 49% of the eligible children are being served; 57% at the Berwick center; and at Millville and Benton nearly 100% are enrolled.

In Montour County, the smallest county in Pennsylvania, the Danville Head Start Program serves that county as well as two townships in adjoining Northumberland County. Ninety four children from 91 families who are enrolled represent all Head Start eligible children in the county. Sixty three percent of the families are two parent families, 30% are single mother families, and 8% are single father or other type families. In this rural Central Pennsylvania county, a total of 500 children are being served by county mental health/mental retardation programs, with only 15 of these children coming from Head Start families (Danville Area School District Head Start, 1994). It was noted by Cynthia Line, Health and Handicap Coordinator (1994), that while there are medical, dental and mental health services in the county, problems arise in finding providers who will accept Medicaid, the federal/state health care program for eligible low income families.

The director of the Columbia/Sullivan Head Start Program notes the difficulty of rural Head Start families accessing mental health services by stating that Head Start is usually the first agency to provide comprehensive services to a family. The staff has found that families do not have any idea how to secure mental health services, and even if they do, they are very uncomfortable utilizing a local mental health system (Menapace, 1994).

In order to better meet the mental health needs of Head Start children and their families, both the Columbia/Sullivan County and the Danville Area Head Start Programs incorporate the services of a mental health professional who must be either a child psychiatrist, licensed psychologist, psychiatric nurse, or psychiatric social worker. These professional services may be secured from a school system, university, mental health center, or any eligible vendor who is capable of providing comprehensive mental health services (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children, Youth, and Families, 1981).

The mental health professional assists the Head Start Director, the mental health services' coordinator, and parent representative in developing a plan for the following mental health services: pre-service and in-services for teachers and aides; consultation with teachers and teacher aides; work with parents; and the screening, evaluation, and intervention recommendations regarding children with special needs, as well as children who present with

asymptomatic behaviors. The professional consultant also assists in evaluating the mental health program objectives for the year and planning revisions for the forthcoming year (U.S. Health and Human Services, Administration for Children, Youth, and Families (1981).

The consultant in several rural counties of Pennsylvania has also provided training to Head Start staff so they can better understand normal development and common behavior problems seen in pre-school age children. Several sessions in team building were offered to Head Start staff, including directors, teachers, aides and support personnel, as a means to provide more effective service delivery. Teachers and aides also participated in an in-service on Transition and Endings to help them assess their effectiveness in preparing students and themselves for promotion and leave-taking by grieving and celebrating moving on to the next year, whether it was another Head Start experience or kindergarten for the students. A pre in-service was offered to teachers on "What Is Good Mental Health" and how teachers and aides can develop sensitivity to mental heath and be more effective in helping families access county mental health services. Other topics, including information about drugs and alcohol and how it affects families, have been presented by other community resources to enhance the knowledge and skill of the Head Start staff.

Children are observed by the mental health consultant in the classroom setting periodically and in a conference setting with the coordinator, teachers and aides, and techniques are explored which can be implemented in the classroom and at home visits. A screening device, The Behavioral Checklist for Mental Health Consultation with Head Start Programs, was developed by the consultant to assist Head Start staff in identifying behaviors that may need further assessment. All Head Start programs in the three rural counties utilize the checklist as a base line for all children. Those children whom the staff and/or the mental health consultant identify as possibly having atypical behaviors are then observed in their classrooms. After the observation a conference is held with the coordinator of mental health services, coordinator of educational programs, teacher, aide, and mental health consultant to discuss the child's behavior, systems with which the child and family interface, and to develop recommendations. These

recommendations may include different teaching strategies, behavioral management techniques, parenting techniques, or referral for other needed services. Parents are encouraged to be a part of this conference so they can be empowered to meet the needs of their child and family (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children, Youth, and Families, 1981). The recommendations for further services may include referral for a neurological evaluation at a local hospital; psychological evaluation; psychiatric evaluation; specific medical evaluation (for example, testing for lead poisoning which has been linked to brain damage, learning disabilities and behavioral changes in children); speech and language screening; protective child welfare services; crisis intervention; shelter services for battered women; and outpatient mental health services for the child and family. The mental health consultant may assist teachers and parents in accessing these needed services (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children, Youth, and Families, 1981).

The mental health consultant provides an educational program for parents to assist them in developing an ongoing education in mental health for parents and their children. Topics presented by the consultant include: Normal Developmental for Children Ages 3-5; How to Help Your Child Express His/Her Feelings; and The Role of the Mental Health Consultant. A Head Start support group for parents, utilizing Head Start staff as facilitators, has given parents an arena to discuss their concerns. The consultant is available to meet with parents in this formal structure as well as informally after meetings. Parents may request that the consultant observe their child and/or discuss specific concerns with them (Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children, Youth, and Families, 1981). Head Start parents are advised of mental health services in the Head Start program and provide consent for special mental health services. The consultant's role is explained in the Parent Handbook and the consultant has written articles for the parent newsletter.

One example of a team approach to provide mental health services to a child and his/her family is the following. With the assistance of the mental health consultant, the teacher of a four year old who had been restless, easily distracted, energetic, was unable to complete tasks, was

aggressive at the center and who exhibited many of the same behaviors at home, has been able to discuss her techniques with the consultant. After a classroom observation the teacher was able to try other techniques designed to redirect early signals of disruptive behavior, provide positive reinforcement for acceptable behaviors and continue to document the child's progress. It had been noted that the parents were frustrated in coping with their child's behaviors and agreed to meet with the mental health consultant. It was learned that their parenting skills were adequate, the child's lead level was normal, and the child suffered from asthma. The parents agreed to a referral to a child psychiatrist at a local facility who diagnosed the child with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder. The parents were then educated regarding the use of medication.

In conclusion, the role of a mental health consultant to rural Head Start programs is critical to Head Start families accessing mental health and other services in their rural county. The consultant becomes an integral part of the process of providing the competence for a child and his/her family to achieve in the Head Start program and meet the challenge of an ever increasing complicated environment.

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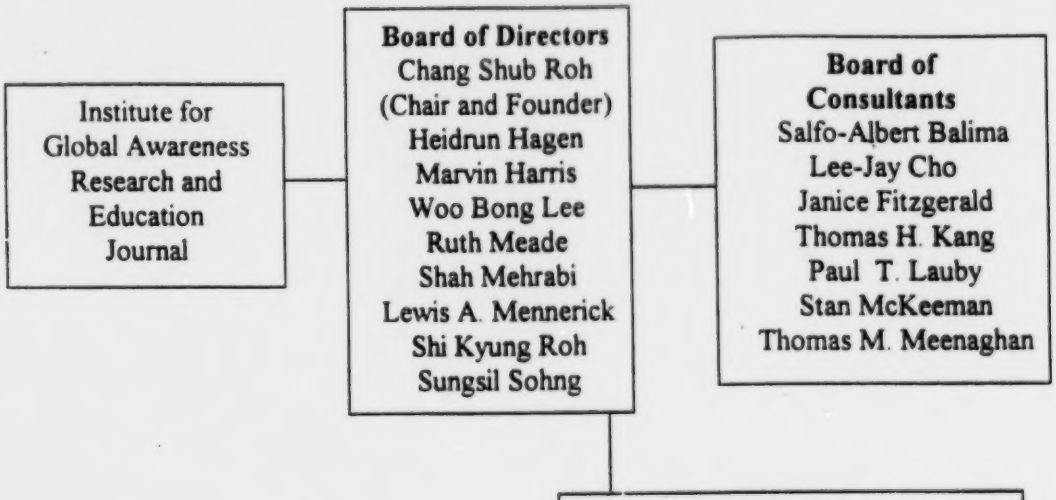

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